ORGANIZING THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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ORGANIZING THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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PREFACE

The crisis through which the world is passing has produced varied but definite reactions in many fields of human endeavor and activity. Age-old institutions of man are being closely examined and reappraised in the light of the momentous changes of the present. Political, social, and economic policies are being scrutinized and criticized. Out of the present exigencies—serious and critical as they may be—many thoughtful persons are looking forward to the dawn of a new era when justice and liberty will prevail everywhere.

The field of education, naturally, has felt the influence of the general unrest and the desire for change. This has resulted not only in greatly increased experimentation, but also in thoroughgoing investigations into all aspects of teaching. In many parts of the country, programs and curricula are developing that break sharply with the past. Every effort is being put forth by teachers everywhere to develop individuals in a democracy, emphasizing character, citizenship, and a better social order.

Many learned societies and groups have been studying the problem of making education more effective. Among them might be mentioned the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, the Educational Policies Commission and other committees of the National Education Association, and the committees of the Progressive Education Association. Following the lead of the last organization, certain regional groups are making studies, many of them similar to the recent Eight-year Experimental Study. To keep in touch with developments in the field of education is a difficult task for the busy teacher.

It is the purpose of the authors of this book to survey but one aspect of education—that concerned with the organization of the social-studies curriculum. This volume has been written for the express purpose of helping teachers—both those in training and those in service—to understand the underlying theories and principles for organizing the social studies on the secondary-

school level. The problems of effective organization are first discussed in general terms and then in detail with particular reference to each traditional field. The objectives, content, materials, activities, procedures, and the desirability of a broad program of evaluating the outcomes of each subject are given special consideration. A survey and appraisal of such movements as correlation, fusion, and integration are also presented. These procedures and curriculum changes are shown in actual practice as they are being worked out in state-wide social-studies programs, as well as in specific school systems and in individual schools.

This book has been planned as a companion volume to Arthur C. and David H. Bining's *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools,* which emphasizes the teaching and presentation of the social studies. To supplement that volume the theory and practice of organizing the social studies are fully presented here.

The authors wish to stress their opinion that there is no one best way of organizing the curriculum at the present time. Plans that suit one school may not be best for other schools. Communities, pupils, and teachers differ. But all plans can be vitalized so that they might contribute more to accomplishing the aims of education. Suggestions to this end are given in this work. It should be noted that many questions are still unsettled. For example, the place of history in the curriculum, the question of how economics and sociology should be presented to adolescents, and the problem of whether materials should be organized in subject-matter areas or on the basis of areas of human experience. Much more experimentation will have to be done before definite answers to many questions can be given. The authors have attempted to present various methods and plans of organizing the social-studies curriculum and to offer suggestions that will aid teachers and pupils in living and developing the American way of life. The authors wish to thank all those who have assisted them in any way, especially Professor Herbert J. Abraham, School of Education, University of Chicago, for his suggestions and aid.

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PHILADELPHIA, PA.,
May, 1941.

CONTENTS

PAGE

PREFACE v

CHAPTER I

THE CURRICULUM 1

The School and Society—Grave Problems of the Modern World—The Function of the School in Modern Society—The School and Democracy—Responsibility for Democracy in the Classroom—The Meaning of Democracy in the School—The School Curriculum—Changes in the Philosophy of Education—Criticism of the School Curriculum—The Social Studies in the Curriculum—Principles Underlying the Social-studies Curriculum—The Type or Pattern of Organization—Evaluating the Type of Organization—Trends in Curriculum Making—The Trend to Stress Modern Problems—Summary.

CHAPTER II

THE IMPORTANCE OF GUIDANCE . 19

The Need for Guidance—The Learning Process—Implications of the Learning Process for the Teacher—An Error That Teachers Often Make—Adequate Provision for Individual Differences—Basic Causes for Individual Differences—Individual Differences: Implications for the Teacher—Individual Differences and Mental Health—Methods of Meeting Individual Needs—A Philosophy Regarding Individual Differences—Methods of Analyzing Pupil Difficulties—Evaluating Pupil Growth—Inadequacies of Most Evaluation Programs—Course Objectives and Evaluation—Suggestions for an Evaluation Program—Summary.

CHAPTER III

ORGANIZING THE MATERIALS OF INSTRUCTION. 46

Formal Education or Real-life Experiences?—Attempts to Make School Experiences Real—The Formal Organization of the Materials of Instruction—The Topical Plan of Organization—The Extreme Topical Plan—The Rise of the Unitary Plan—The Influence of Gestalt Psychology on Unitary Organization—Varying Concepts of the Unit—The Morrison Unitary Plan—The Unit of Adaptation—Correlated, Fused, and Integrated Units—The Center-of-interest Unit—The Activity Unit—The Experience Unit—Which Is the Best Type of Unitary Organization?—Summary.

PAGE

CHAPTER IV

AMERICAN HISTORY. 63

American History in the Curriculum—Aims and Objectives—The Problem of Interest—Gradation of American History—Arrangement of Materials—Organizing Units—The Use of Geography in Teaching American History—The Importance of Relating Contemporary Events to American History—The Importance of Local History—Textbook and Other Materials- Biography—Historical Fiction—Evaluation—Summary.

CHAPTER V

EUROPEAN HISTORY. 82

European History in the Curriculum—The Influence of Reports of Committees on the Curriculum—Problems of Organizing the Materials of European History—Objectives—Suggested Plans of Organization—Reevaluating the Materials of Modern History—Textbook and Other Materials—Geography and European History—Stimulating Interest—Problems of Gradation—Evaluation—Summary.

CHAPTER VI

WORLD HISTORY 98

The Importance of World History as a School Subject—The Place of World History in the Curriculum—The Experiments of the Progressive Education Association—Objectives—Unit Organization—Time Relationships—Supplementary Reading—The Use of Geography in World History—Textbook and Other Materials—Suggested Plans for Presenting World History—Unit Outlines—Evaluation—Summary.

CHAPTER VII

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS, OR INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS 118

A Course in International Relations—The Scope of a Course in International Relations—Should a Course in International Relations Be Included in the Secondary-school Curriculum?—Objectives—Organization of the Course—Current Events and the Teaching of International Relations—Available Materials and Their Use—Textbooks—Other Books and Periodicals for Class Use—Other Teaching Aids—Books for Individual Reading—The Use of Newspapers in a Course in International Relations—International Relations in the Social-studies Curriculum—Summary.

CHAPTER VIII

CIVICS AND GOVERNMENT 137

The Need for Improved Civic Education—The Achievements of the Public School—Civic Education in the Entire School—The Evolution of Courses in Civics—Modern Civics—Traits of Good Citizenship—Functional Civics—Factual Aspects of Civics—Civics as an Introductory Course to the Social Studies in the Junior High

PAGE

School—The Personal Approach to Civics—The Importance of Developing Patterns of Behavior—The Meaning of Purposeful, Real-life Activities—Effective Procedures and Activities—Cooperation between the School and the Community—High-school Courses in Government—Realism in Studying Government—Activities in a Course in Government—Student Government—Safety Education—Civic Training through School Organizations—Material for the Study of Civics and Government—Evaluation in Civics and Government—Summary.

CHAPTER IX

PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY 155

The Need for a Course in Problems of American Democracy—Its Adoption—Objectives—General Suggestions for Organizing a Course in Problems of Democracy—Some of the More Common Topics and Ways of Organizing Them—Specific Plans by Which Problems Courses Have Been Organized—The Importance of the Teacher—Evaluation—Cautions in Teaching Problems of Democracy—Summary.

CHAPTER X

ECONOMICS 174

Economics as an Organized School Subject—The Early Teaching of Economics—Changes in the Content of Economics in the Schools—Economics in the Curriculum Today—Recent Trends in Teaching Economics—The Purpose of Economics in the Curriculum—Principles for Organizing a Course in Economics—The Traditional Approach—The Problem Approach—The Project Approach—The Case Method—Other Approaches—The Rise of Consumer Economics—Types of Courses in Consumer Economics—A New Approach to Consumer Education—Aids to Teaching Economics—The Use of Free Pamphlets and Booklets—Evaluating the Outcomes in Economics—Summary.

CHAPTER XI

SOCIOLOGY 192

Sociology Defined—The Need for a Course in Sociology—Sociology: Its Place and Value in Secondary Education—Common Criticisms of the Teaching of Sociology in High Schools—Efforts to Allay These Criticisms—Objectives—General Concepts around Which the Course Should Be Organized—Making the Choice of Materials and Experiences for High-school Sociology—Plans of Organization—Methods of Presentation and Study—Statistics and Sociology—Sources of Sociological Materials—Evaluation—Summary.

CHAPTER XII

CURRENT EVENTS 216

Reasons for the Introduction of Current Events into the Curriculum—Problems in the Teaching of Current Events—The Value of

PAGE

Current Events—Difficulties in the Study of Current Events—Aims and Objectives—The Place of Current Events in the Curriculum—The Appeal to the Interest of the Pupil—The Need for Teaching Current Events—The Importance of Teaching Discrimination in Reading—The Importance of Studying Present-day Problems—Fitting Current Events into the School Program—When Should Current Events Be Taught?—Methods of Teaching Current Events—Current Events as an Extra-curricular Activity—Devices and Aids—The Selection of Reading Material—The Selection of Topics—Checking the Work—The Problem of Indoctrination—Teaching History Backward—The Importance of the Teacher of Current Events—Summary.

CHAPTER XIII

GEOGRAPHY 234

Geography in Eighteenth-century Schools—The Evolution of Secondary-school Geography—Geography in Junior High Schools Today—The Importance of Geography in Junior High Schools—Purposes of Teaching Geography—Plans of Organization—The Regional Plan—The Topical Plan—The Type Plan of Organization—Other Plans—Fusion Courses—Geography in Senior High School—Commercial or Economic Geography—Organization of Courses in Commercial Geography—What Type of Geography Should Be Taught in High Schools?—The Need for Political Geography—Aids to Teaching Geography—Materials for the Study of Geography—Summary.

CHAPTER XIV

CORRELATION AND FUSION. 250

The Development of the Idea of Correlation in the United States—The Influence of John Dewey—The Importance of Correlated Thinking—Correlated Thinking in the Schools—Correlated Courses of Study—Examples of Correlation among Various Subject-matter Fields—Suggestions for Developing Plans of Correlation—The Movement toward Fusion—The Meaning of Fusion in the Social Studies—Varying Ideas of Fusion—Reasons for the Rise of the Fusion Movement—An Evaluation of Fusion Courses—Results of the Introduction and Development of Fusion Courses—Summary.

CHAPTER XV

SOME RECENT TRENDS 270

The Need for Change—Examples of Change—Traditional Courses of Study—Reasons for Changing Curricula—Some Newer Methods for Determining Course Content—Psychology and the "New" Education—"Needs" and Curriculum Making—Methods for Determining Needs—Classifying Pupil Needs—Other Bases for Recent Trends in Curriculum Reconstruction—Important General Ques-

PAGE

tions—Some Interesting Experiments and Trends—Integrated Courses—Types of Integrated Courses—Summary.

CHAPTER XVI

SOME NEW PLANS 290

New Plans Develop—The Core Curriculum Defined—Values of the Core Course—Responsibilities of Core-curriculum Teachers—Bases for Selecting Core Problems—Two Plans for Selecting Problems—Further Consideration of the Core—The Core Conference Hours—Examples of Core Curricula—Areas of Human Activity Defined—Some Types of the Areas-of-human-activity Curricula—Social-process Approach Defined—Conclusions—Summary.

INDEX . . . 315

ORGANIZING THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

CHAPTER I

THE CURRICULUM

The School and Society.—The question as to exactly what part the school should play in solving the many problems of the machine age and in preserving freedom and democracy in our dynamic society is a debatable one. Many have condemned the school for not fulfilling its functions in this respect. Without question, our educational institutions have not responded to the changing needs of society as they should. But other institutions, including the Church and the Family as well as such educational aids as the radio, motion pictures, the forum, and even literature, have likewise failed more or less in a similar manner. If progress is to be achieved at all, and if order is to be brought to our confused civilization, every institution, every agency, and all men must cooperate in an intelligent manner in an attempt to solve modern problems and to devise the best steps to preserve our rich heritage of liberty and opportunity.

Grave Problems of the Modern World.—In recent years, rampant nationalism and greed have been the dominant goals of many of the governments of the world. These have seriously interfered with educational advance in our own country as well as abroad. The dark and ominous picture of bloody warfare in a supposedly enlightened twentieth century civilization is evidence of diseased and distressed cultures. Such serious problems as millions of unemployed and the inability to distribute vast farm surpluses when large numbers are underfed in the greatest democracy in the world indicate a lack of general intelligence in coping with the difficulties of the present and behoove educators

to consider the part that education must really play if civilization is to survive.

The Function of the School in Modern Society.—The question as to whether or not the school should undertake the reformation and reconstruction of present-day society with all its defects and evils has been discussed many times by educators and others. There are two main lines of thought in regard to the function of the school in society today:

1. That the school should seek the adjustment of the learner to prevailing social ideals and institutions. This policy evidently plans to create a citizenry adjusted to a most imperfect society and even neglects to consider the fact that our civilization is a constantly changing one. No progress is possible under such a plan, and present evils are not only perpetuated but are accepted as a matter of course.

2. That the chief function of the school should be to seek the reconstruction of society. How complete this reconstruction should actually be, however, is the main source of controversy. It is rather generally held that the school should recognize that social ideals and institutions are constantly changing and that the success of the reconstruction of society depends upon the speed and skill with which its members learn to effect the necessary changes. Most modern educators believe that the school must help to develop this program of reconstruction. Practically all, moreover, recognize that the school is only one of a number of institutions with educational responsibility.

If we accept the second viewpoint, it is evident that the pupil must acquire a real understanding of his social environment, past and present. It means, further, that the pupil must develop such attitudes and abilities as will enable him to meet successfully the problems and situations that will confront him at the present time and that he will have to face in the future. The best way to educate a democratic citizenry is to establish conditions and encourage situations that are as lifelike as the school will permit, out of which will emerge thinking, cooperative individuals, possessing the eagerness to grow, desiring to assume new responsibilities, knowing the meaning and values of democracy as well as its problems, willing to defend their democratic faith under all circumstances, and able to fulfill their duties as citizens of a great democracy.

The School and Democracy.—Never before in our history have the questions of preserving and improving democracy been more important than at present, as democracies have crumbled all over the world. Whether or not we shall continue to develop a democratic society depends not so much upon upholding the vision of our forebears as upon the success in effecting a public intelligence among the masses of the people. The secondary school more than any other educational institution is responsible for the development of competent individuals who can grasp and understand the essential elements of human experience and adapt themselves to conditions that are continually changing. Unless we can produce in the schools young people who are willing and able to participate in democratic processes, our traditions and ideals will vanish.[1] Democracy must not only be taught—it must be *lived* by our pupils. Formal education must be modified to a considerable degree, and opportunities provided for real experiences in the lives of pupils. Duties and responsibilities and especially the opportunity for making choices and decisions must be given to the citizens that make up the population of the schools.

A recent volume of the Educational Policies Commission points out that there are various ways by which democracy is being attempted in many schools at the present time. Among these are plans to develop democracy through dictatorial methods; through "feverish action which appears to have only the aim of keeping everyone busy"; through carrying out "formulas for democratic planning"; through complete freedom in the school; through sharing responsibilities and getting the work done; and through carefully delegating powers to the administrators, teachers, and pupils in accord with those which they are prepared and permitted to exercise. This report emphasizes three problems that must be solved before the democratic way of life can work efficiently in the school. These are: (1) purpose (what is to be done); (2) procedure (how it is to be done); and (3) personnel (who is to do it).[2] It is quite evident that democracy must mean

[1] See H. E. Wilson, *Education for Citizenship* (New York, 1939), for a critical appraisal of the teaching of the social studies in the schools of the state of New York.

[2] National Education Association: *Learning the Ways of Democracy: A Case Book of Civic Education*, Educational Policies Commission, Chap. I, Washington, 1940.

more than vague abstractions. It must be a combination of thought and action in accord with the principles of the American way of life on the part of all the individuals that make up the school.

Responsibility for Democracy in the Classroom.—All teachers must cooperate in guiding pupils in the democratic way of life. Most of the responsibility for this should not be placed upon the teachers of the social studies alone, although the latter, perhaps, might assume leadership in the work. The first steps should be taken by school administrators, who should encourage the development of a democratic philosophy for the entire school. Such a program can be worked out under the guidance of a carefully chosen school committee of faculty and pupils. Its principles should be evaluated, accepted, and translated into procedure and concepts of democratic living by the whole school. In this manner, experiences in the democratic way of living can be provided for each school system.

The teacher, too, must play an important part in putting into effect the ideal of democracy as the pattern of human relationships. He must be well informed in the basic arts of life and be able to guide the thought processes of pupils in their practical social relations. He must have understanding and experience in the democratic way of doing things, and his knowledge of American culture must be not only a broad but a growing one. In other words, the teacher must be the leader and guide if democracy is to prevail in the classroom.

The Meaning of Democracy in the School.—Discussions of democracy frequently resolve themselves into little other than words, platitudes, and meaningless phrases. Too often at meetings and conventions has democracy been presented in glittering generalities and elegantly turned phrases with little concern for actualities and specific problems. Too frequently in our schools do we give only lip service to democracy through routine flag ceremonies, emotional phrases, and half-hearted attempts to sing the national anthem, while intolerance grows, political leaders betray the principles of our government, and bewildered youth face a confused and unsympathetic world. It will be the chief purpose of this volume to present concretely various methods and plans of organizing the social studies and to offer suggestions that will aid pupils in developing a democratic way of life in the

school as preparation for their responsibilities of adult democratic citizenship.

The School Curriculum.—The curriculum should be defined to include the entire program of the school. This means not only classroom work but the assembly, school government, and play and club activities as well as community activity that is related to the work and life of the school. In other words, the curriculum includes everything that happens with purpose in the school life of pupils. It is a "frame of reference" or a guide designed to provide learning situations and experiences for the purpose of aiding pupils to participate in the activities of the present and to prepare them for real participation in the duties and responsibilities that will confront them in the future. If this definition is accepted, it is evident that the various phases and aspects of the curriculum should be considered in relation to each other. They should be integrated and unified if efficiency and worthwhile results are to be achieved. This means the necessity for hearty and complete cooperation on the part of all the members of the school staff.

Changes in the Philosophy of Education.—In accord with changing purposes of education, many new doctrines have developed during the past few decades. Emphasis formerly was on the subjects taught without regard for the abilities or nature of the pupils. As a result of investigation and experimentation during recent years in the fields of biology, psychology, and child study, it is evident that learning must be adjusted to the ability of the learner; and therefore the interests, capacities, and especially the intellectual and emotional background of the pupil must be the first consideration. As a result of new conceptions, many old ideas have been discarded. The theory that regarded the mind as a number of separate faculties or compartments has given way to the view that the mind of each individual is a unit. Individuals differ not only mentally but physically, emotionally, and socially; provision, therefore, must be made for individual differences. Teaching in an artificial or stilted atmosphere has been replaced by the demand that training be done in a natural-life situation. Thinking must be developed through contact with actual problems and "felt difficulties," and learning must consist of "wholehearted purposeful activity." Thus, the old disciplinary school, where stress was placed upon

subject matter and pupils were ruled by a taskmaster with a rod, is giving way slowly to a new type of school, where modern educational doctrines are being practiced to a lesser or greater degree in the free atmosphere of democracy.

Criticism of the School Curriculum.—Serious criticism of the traditional secondary-school curriculum has been made by many educators. Among those who have raised their voices in protest, C. H. Judd has referred to it as " . . . a relic of the European system of education for the upper classes and a pre-professional curriculum for those entering the priesthood, law, medicine, and teaching."

This educator suggests a general course of study that would include:

> . . . first, certain general courses needed by all members of a modern democratic society—a compact review of the sciences, natural and social; a course or series of courses on the duties of a member of a community; a course or series of courses in the literature which records the experiences and ideals of the race; and a course in social psychology describing individuals and the place of individuals in the social order. The curriculum should include, second, vocational education, or the cultivation of the skills and techniques of operation necessary in the trades and the professions.[3]

At the other extreme are those who would reorganize the curriculum in a revolutionary manner by developing it on the basis of "areas of human experience" or "centers of interest," where traditional subject barriers would be entirely abolished and a new organization developed around problems of living. This new plan is being tried in schools in many different parts of the country.

Quite evidently, the traditional secondary-school curriculum was not intended for the great mass of youth that attend the schools today, for it is too detached from life and does not fit the needs of most of the present-day school population. We must try out new plans of curricula if we are going to administer to the needs of youth today and provide them with an education that will permit them to develop socially and culturally to the limit

[3] C. H. Judd, "What Is General Education?" Department of Secondary School Principals, National Education Association, *Bulletin* (October, 1937), p. 15.

of the capacity of each individual, as well as to produce citizens who can contribute to the development of a democratic society. It is outside the limits of this book to present for consideration any suggestions regarding a changing curriculum for the entire school. It is necessary therefore to consider only the part that the social studies might play in the secondary-school curriculum and the programs that are being worked out or experimented with at the present time.

The Social Studies in the Curriculum.—The social studies should play a most important part in achieving the purposes of education. A survey of their teaching in the schools today will reveal many aims and objectives. The most important of these have been generally accepted. Perhaps the chief is that the pupil must have a thorough understanding of the conditions in which mankind lives and works. Naturally, this includes a comprehension of the development and growth of the great institutions of society, as well as an appreciative understanding of their present status and probable trend in the future. This important objective is in accord with the generally accepted principle that the primary aim of American education is to enrich and develop the lives of pupils to the greatest extent of their abilities and to prepare individuals for effective membership in a democratic society. It is generally agreed that society must be democratic if it is to conform with principles of mental development, although interpretations of exactly what constitutes a democracy might vary in detail. There is practical unanimity, however, on the idea that sound public opinion is one important essential.

Another outstanding objective in the social studies grows out of the fact that our complex society is dynamic—ever changing. The pupil, therefore, must be so trained and educated that he will be able to adjust himself to changes that may occur in the future. In addition, certain ideals, standards, and attitudes are essential for citizens of a democracy. Not the least of these is the creation of attitudes conducive to self-reliance and self-restraint. Disciplined self-control is especially needed in an environment created by science and machines and in a society where emphasis of necessity is upon collective action. The school must provide such training. It is evident that the objectives of the social studies in terms of citizenship and civic con-

sciousness can be attained only by a realistic approach to the study of social institutions and social problems.

Principles Underlying the Social-studies Curriculum.—In developing a social-studies program, certain principles should be considered. It is essential that guiding criteria be formulated explicitly, regardless of what general pattern of curriculum organization may be adopted. Only in this way can an efficient course of study be worked out. One of the best lists of principles has been suggested by the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. The outline, together with some comment on it, is as follows:

1. *Comprehensiveness and Balance.*—Provision must be made for experiences and learning situations that will achieve all the major aims and objectives. Pupils should be provided with direct or vicarious experiences that will aid to achieve the purposes of teaching the social studies. One important area frequently neglected in the social studies is that of family relationships. No important aspect of social experience should be slighted; the time devoted to and the emphasis placed upon these experiences should be in proportion to their value. The course of study must be inclusive and well balanced.

2. *Vertical Articulation.*—The entire social-studies program from the kindergarden to the twelfth grade should be considered. Each unit and grade should be built upon what has preceded and should lay a basis for what is to follow. Too often, courses are organized without any consideration for what has gone before or what is to come. For example, when American history is taught in the fifth, eighth, and eleventh grades, usually little attempt is made to articulate such courses in any way or to provide for gradation. The vertical articulation of the entire program is necessary if the curriculum is to be developed intelligently.

3. *Horizontal Articulation.*—The social-studies program should be carefully considered in connection with the entire curriculum for the particular grade level. As far as possible, the experiences obtained by pupils in all subjects should be correlated to the greatest possible extent. There is no excuse for presenting the various school subjects as entirely separate and isolated fields. Relationships among the different subjects should be sought and utilized as much as possible.

4. *Reality of Learning Situations.*—Most of the work of the classroom in the past has consisted chiefly in providing vicarious experiences for learners. It is true that there is not enough time to permit pupils to experience directly large numbers of social experiences. Such should be limited to really basic ones. The present movement to relate the work of the school to the life of the community is an indication of the trend to provide reality in teaching situations. Examples of direct learning situations include "observing a factory in operation, making a genuine group decision, reading an actual document a hundred years old, comparing observers' reports of the same event, or traveling 300 miles as a basis for a sense of distance. Such basic experiences may make meaningful a considerable amount of vicarious experience."

5. *Self-integrated Learning.*—The curriculum maker must be continually conscious of the fact that emphasis must be upon the organization of learning by the pupil and not upon the course of study itself. The program of learning begins with the pupil's present status. If it attempts a set of experiences remotely related to his present status, then difficulty ensues. The learner must experience the things that he is to learn and must integrate these experiences including ideas, understandings, skills, attitudes, problem-solving abilities, and social behavior. He must make them his own in terms of his own experience.

6. *Adaptation to Maturity of the Learner.*—As far as possible, the program should be adapted to the learner's level of development. Much work still needs to be done in the gradation of the materials of instruction and also in determining specific types of understanding, although considerable progress has been made.[4] Valuable studies have been made regarding instructional equipment suitable in range of difficulty and depth of treatment for ability areas at each grade level.[5] Reading skill, especially, must be considered. The course must also be adapted to the learner's state of development in his power to perceive social relationships.

[4] WILLIAM V. BADGER, "The Grade Placement of Social Studies Materials," *Social Studies*, 31 (May, 1940), pp. 210–219.

[5] See ERNEST HORN, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies;* American Historical Association, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, pp. 18–22, 151–205, New York, 1937.

7. *Adaptation to Community Characteristics.*—The distinctive characteristics and the needs of the local community must be taken into consideration, especially from the points of view of its uniqueness and contributions. More than this, however, in working out the program, provision must be made in agricultural communities to have the pupil experience and understand the important aspects of city life. On the other hand, city children should be given the opportunity to study farm life. Thus, although community characteristics should be emphasized, provision must be made for a well-rounded understanding of all aspects of social life.

8. *Adaptation to Individual Differences.*—Much stress has been rightly placed in recent years on the differences of pupils. They have much in common and also much that differs. Both must be considered. They have differences in capacity, interests, skills, tastes, preferences, emotions, desires, understandings, physical conditions, health, and experience. Adjustment of the curriculum to individual differences must mean much more than a modification of the materials of instruction and procedure for bright, average, and dull pupils. It means making provision for the needs, tastes, interests, and capacities of each individual within the group.

9. *Flexibility.*—Provision should be made for a flexible curriculum. Opportunity must be provided for those experiences which cannot be anticipated when organizing the course of study.

In general, the desired flexibility may be secured in three ways: the practice of leaving some time unassigned for pressing timely issues; the use of large units within which teachers and pupils select the specific areas for work; and the provision of many units from which an appropriate number can be chosen.

10. *Contributions to General Objectives.*—The program must be developed from the point of view of achieving the general aims and objectives of education as well as the more specific objectives of the social studies. *The Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*[6] and the report on social-economic goals[7] are examples

[6] United States Bureau of Education, *Bulletin* 35, Washington, 1918.

[7] National Education Association: *The Social-economic Goals of America*, Committee on Social-economic Goals of America, Washington, 1934. See National Education Association *Journal*, 27 (January, 1938), pp. 8–20.

of statements of the general objectives of education that have been widely accepted. The well-planned curriculum will make its proportionate contributions to the achievement of the general aims.[8] Although the objectives are placed last in this list of principles, they should be considered first in planning every course of study.

The Type or Pattern of Organization.—A very important decision must be made in the choice of the general pattern or plan of organization of the social-studies curriculum. It is not essential that all schools use the same or even similar patterns, for the needs of schools vary to a considerable degree. However, at the present time, so many different plans are being used or are in process of development that confusion results in the minds of many teachers. There are thousands of different courses of study, but these might be classified in a few categories as to type or pattern. Generally speaking, plans of organizing the social studies may be grouped under four main headings: (1) the traditional type of organization, (2) correlated courses of study, (3) fused or integrated courses, and (4) courses based on areas of experience.

1. *The Traditional Type of Organization.*—Although much work is being done toward improving instruction in secondary schools through curriculum changes, it is evident that all the theories advanced by the advocates of a child-centered school cannot be translated into practice under present conditions. Much experimentation will have to continue until definite results are obtained, and teachers will have to be better prepared to cope with problems arising from such new types of organization. It is evident that in the present state of the curriculum, most schools will continue to offer the separate *subjects* for some time to come. This does not mean that the separate subject courses, such as history, civics, economics, problems of democracy, and geography, cannot be greatly improved in many ways in order to accomplish the objectives of the social studies and the main aims of education in general. At the present time, such work planned on traditional lines is usually taught without any effort to bring out the relationships between the various fields. There is often much overlapping of materials in such courses and consequently a loss of time because of needless repetition. This is

[8] Based on National Education Association: *Fourteenth Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, Chap. VI.

especially true when the subjects are taught by different teachers. Too much stress is also placed on subject matter and too little on the needs, tastes, interests, and personalities of the pupils.

2. *Correlated Courses of Study.*—In many schools, plans have been devised to correlate two or more courses by utilizing the relationships between them. History and geography courses in the same grade, for example, can be organized in a parallel manner so that the outcomes of one course will aid in a greater understanding of the other. When American history is being studied, the geography of the United States is related to the materials taught in the history class. Courses in American history and American literature can be well correlated. By careful planning, parallel courses can be made to supplement each other. A few attempts have been made to organize and administer in definite relationship all the courses in the curriculum, although such a program is very difficult to achieve. Here again, however, stress is usually laid on the materials of instruction and not on the learner.

3. *Fused or Integrated Courses.*—Plans have been devised to combine all the social studies by obliterating subject boundaries. Under such plans, objectives are set up, and the materials of instruction and activities are drawn from any field or fields to achieve the objectives. In such a curriculum, the various social studies are organized and administered without any attempt to preserve their separate identity.

4. *Courses Based on Areas of Experience.*—New courses have been tried in recent years that discard almost entirely the form, organization, and much of the content of the traditional fields, except as such materials are needed for an understanding of the areas studied. Such work centers in the everyday life of the present and consists of a study of such areas of experience as making a home, securing an education, preparing for a vocation, training for leisure time, cooperating in civic action, and expressing aesthetic impulses. This is the most revolutionary of any of the plans conceived at the present time. The new pattern, still in its first experimental stages, requires an organization far removed from all other curricular patterns.

Evaluating the Type of Organization.—The plan of social studies adopted should be carefully evaluated on the basis of the ten principles mentioned in the preceding pages. The program

as a whole, for instance, should be reviewed and checked from the point of view of comprehensiveness and balance. All major areas of social experience necessary for the pupils should be provided. Likewise, the materials of instruction should be checked to insure a unified and continuous curriculum from the first grade to the twelfth and for a proper correlation on each grade level. Adequate basic experiences, as well as vicarious experiences, must be included. In a similar manner, all the other principles, also, should be used as criteria. The desired union of theory and practice can be accomplished by evaluation not only on the adoption of a program but by frequent considerations and appraisals at every step of its development.

Trends in Curriculum Making.—During recent years, increasing attention has been given to the construction of the curriculum, especially in the light of present-day educational philosophy. The most important of these trends—and they are only trends which do not affect all schools—may be summarized as follows: (1) more-cooperation among administrators, specialists, and teachers in the development of the curriculum; (2) better planning and coordination in relating the work of the school to the life of the community; (3) a greater variety of curricular materials and provisions for a wider range of activities; (4) more emphasis on realism and less on formal education; (5) increasing attention to pupil guidance; (6) more opportunities for pupil experiences that are life-centered and purposeful; (7) better efforts to discover and provide for pupil interests and needs; (8) broader opportunities for critical and reflective thinking, for the development of initiative and adaptability, and for cooperative enterprises; (9) growing emphasis on present-day problems and situations; (10) better means of evaluating school programs.

The Trend to Stress Modern Problems.—A recent trend of modern education, regardless of the type or pattern of organization, overemphasizes a study of contemporary problems. All educators agree that pupils should have the opportunity to understand the problems that will face them when they leave school to take their place in society. Courses with such objectives should be provided, especially in the last years of secondary education. Techniques of problem solving should also play an important role in the high school. However, the great emphasis

by some educators on a study of the problems of the contemporary world appears to have gone too far, for the fact that human culture has traditional roots in the past may be forgotten. There is also danger that in this emphasis of current problems school classrooms may be turned into political societies for the benefit of particular groups and that education may be used to propagandize certain beliefs.

The increasing emphasis upon contemporary problems also assumes that teachers and pupils may plan to solve social and economic problems. If authorities and experts cannot provide solutions to our difficulties, it is certain that the schools cannot aid immediately in this respect to any great extent. If the teacher has a solution, it can be little else than to propagandize his own particular ideas. And certainly, immature pupils cannot create a utopia. This does not mean, however, that pupils should not have a thorough understanding of present-day problems in order that a new generation may cope more successfully with them than the present generation has. Only in this way will any progress be made.

Teachers ought to be educators. They should provide experiences for pupils so that they will be able to read, speak, think, reason, and judge accurately. This is the first step toward the solution of our political, social, and economic problems. The heritage of the past should be taught not for the sake of the past but for the purpose of understanding the present and the future. The chief function of education is to develop men and women who can and will take their places in our industrialized and democratic society—individuals who will be better equipped to serve and preserve our democratic ideals.

Summary.—Different ideas prevail regarding the function of the school in our society. The school must be considered as only one agency—a very important one—in shaping an intelligent civilization. A few educators believe that the school should seek onlv the adjustment of the learner to prevailing ideas of society, but a majority are agreed that the chief function of the school should be to aid in the reconstruction of society. However, there is much controversy over the question as to how far this reconstruction should go.

The need for greater emphasis in developing ideas and ideals of democracy is apparent. Responsibility for establishing a demo-

cratic way of life in the schools rests especially with administrators and teachers. Too often we take democracy for granted, thinking and acting in regard to it only in general terms. We must face the difficulties that confront our form of society and must learn to fulfill our obligations to it. We must act in regard to growing intolerance and must seriously consider the many difficulties of the present. It is necessary for us to appreciate our democracy, and we should do all possible to remedy its defects.

It is evident that the school curriculum today does not meet the needs of the pupils or of society in spite of the advances made in the philosophy of education and the educational changes of recent years. Various suggestions and plans have been made for reorganizing the entire curriculum of the school. These vary from changes in types of courses to an entirely new organization developed around problems of living. The social-studies program is in a state of restive change. If these subjects are to function more efficiently in the school program, much consideration must be given to achieving the main objectives of aiding pupils to develop their personalities and to participate more effectively and cooperatively in a democratic society.

Certain principles should be followed in developing a program in the social studies. Those suggested by the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association are: (1) comprehensiveness and balance, (2) vertical articulation, (3) horizontal articulation, (4) reality of learning situations, (5) self-integrated learning, (6) adaptation to the maturity of the learner, (7) adaptation to community characteristics, (8) adaptation to individual differences, (9) flexibility, and (10) contributions to general objectives. Four patterns or plans of organization may be considered: (1) the traditional type of organization, (2) correlated courses of study, (3) fused or integrated courses, and (4) courses based on areas of experience. The pattern should be constantly evaluated on the basis of the ten principles. At present, much attention is being given to the construction of the curriculum, especially in the light of modern educational philosophy.

There is a trend toward emphasizing contemporary problems, and there is danger that this might be carried too far, for the background of the present cannot be neglected. In overstressing current problems, there is also the danger of using the schools for

the benefit of particular groups, and education may be used to propagandize certain beliefs. It is also foolish to believe that classes can solve serious social and economic problems when experts have failed. However, pupils should have the opportunity to understand present-day problems and should be filled with a desire to do all possible to solve them through the development of a spirit of social cooperation and goodwill. In this way, a new generation may accomplish and achieve much more than the present one. It is the responsibility of teachers of the social studies to provide social experiences for pupils in order that they may become efficient citizens of a great democracy.

Questions

1. Discuss the institutions and agencies that influence public opinion and shape the ideas and ideals of American democratic life.
2. Outline the most important social and economic problems confronting the United States today.
3. What do you believe is the function of the school in modern society?
4. Give the reasons why the school has not made greater progress in preparing citizens for a democracy.
5. Who should be responsible for democracy in the classroom? Show what can be done to make the classroom more democratic.
6. Discuss the real meaning of "democracy as a way of life."
7. State some of the important principles in the new philosophy of education.
8. To what extent has the school curriculum been criticized? What suggestions have been made for its improvement?
9. What can the social studies contribute to the curriculum?
10. Discuss the more important principles underlying a social-studies curriculum.
11. Outline the chief general patterns or plans of organization of the social studies.
12. Show how the plan of organization can be evaluated.
13. What are the dangers of overemphasizing a study of contemporary problems?
14. To what extent should current problems be studied in secondary schools?
15. What is the chief task of the teacher of the social studies?

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CHAPTER II

THE IMPORTANCE OF GUIDANCE

The Need for Guidance.—In a society faced with complex problems, American education must concern itself more and more with human beings as individuals, particularly with their needs and possibilities as members of a society whose fundamental task it is to live productively and cooperatively in a democratic way. Increasingly we must realize the necessity for applying to the problems of human behavior something like the scientific methods that we have applied to the material side of our civilization. If we do not bring about a better, more accurate understanding of human beings, our scientifically made mechanisms may prove our undoing.

Social-studies teachers, with their knowledge of history and modern social problems, should be very much aware of this need for a better understanding of human beings. It is also imperative that they be alert to their responsibilities for knowing better the needs, interests, ambitions, fears, and goals of each pupil so as to make his education most significant and meaningful. The pupils of today are the citizens of tomorrow. Unless their education has been such as to enable them to grow to their fullest capacities, thinking more carefully and habitually about their personal and social problems, being more sensitive to social situations and problems of others, and being better able to see their responsibility for cooperative efforts in behalf of community welfare, then our attempts to move out of our social morass by democratic processes will not be very successful.

Democracy will continue or fall on the basis of whether or not its citizens are able to think intelligently, work cooperatively, and live productively. To a large degree, a person's ability for this type of living depends upon the quality of his educational experiences. It is, then, the duty of social-studies teachers in particular to understand and then apply their knowledge of individual differences in classroom procedures and in every other

learning situation over which they have any control. A teacher does not teach a class; he teaches individuals grouped together in a class. The value of his teaching efforts will depend entirely upon the extent and the desirability of the changes that he helps to bring about in each individual pupil.

The Learning Process.—Learning is always done by the individual. Modern psychology now pictures the individual as a center of energy; an impulse to act characterizes the original nature of the child and can be observed from the moment of its birth. This impulse to activity leads to an ever increasing number of contacts with the environment; as the individual develops day by day, these actions and reactions become more and more complex. Thus the learner is active rather than passive; what he learns are the reactions that he makes. Learning, then, may be considered as the modification of personality through experiences and goes far beyond the mere acquisition of information or new skills.

The effects of learning are changes in the individual; in what he knows; in his mental and physical habits and skills; in his attitudes; and in his beliefs, opinions, and values. In learning to use a typewriter, for example, definite habits have to be built up within the neuro-muscular system of the individual if proficiency is to be gained. Proficiency in this, as in all physical activity, results from well-directed activity on the part of the learner and is not acquired by a passive observance of the performance of someone else engaged in the activity. The study of sociology, through reading, field trips, interviews, and discussions, should help to change the attitudes of the pupil toward such conditions as poor housing, unemployment, slum areas, and related problems, such as crime. So, too, the study of history should bring about changes in the pupil's habitual ways of thinking, in his attitudes toward modern social and economic problems when he views them in their historical perspective, as well as in his beliefs concerning the value of other peoples and their cultural contributions to his own. All real learning, then, produces changes in the individual; the direction and extent of these depend upon the individual and the experiences that he has.

Implications of the Learning Process for the Teacher.—A new role for the teacher is obvious. Education must now be con-

ceived of as something more than classroom instruction. The teacher is no longer considered merely as the agency for transmitting the knowledge, skills, and rules of conduct that have been developed in the past; he becomes, rather, a guide and director of the pupil's activities. Selection of the materials of instruction consists, according to this new psychological interpretation of the learning process, in determining what pupil activities may be provided with a view to bringing about desirable changes in each boy and girl. This cannot be done unless the teacher knows each pupil as a unique individual with certain traits of personality and character growing out of his past experiences and with many potentialities for further development. Information, according to this concept of education, serves only as a means to an end and not as the end in itself, as has so often been conceived in the past.

It is evident that the materials to be studied, the experiences to be gained, and the methods used in helping each pupil to learn must be suited to him as an individual. Scientific studies of learning show that a pupil learns most easily and remembers what he has learned longer if he sees the relationship between what is studied or experienced and his own goals, interests, and needs.[1] Since this is true, the teacher in planning the work for a given group must study each pupil therein, his interests, capacities, desires, and previous experiences, in order to provide activities difficult enough to challenge him and yet simple enough to be within the realm of his comprehension.

Instruction in too many schools in America has been and still is conducted on the assumption that all pupils in a class are exactly alike for instructional purposes. The educational process is viewed as similar in nature to that of making car fenders in which the pieces of metal, all of the same kind and consistency, are put into a machine and stamped out, each in exactly the same pattern. Such an attitude on the part of school administrators and teachers is indefensible in the light of modern physiological, biological, and psychological findings. Modern educators now recognize that the difference between an individual and the average of his group is probably one of the most important facts about him. Hence they try to adjust their curriculum, or

[1] See, for example, those set forth in S. L. Pressey, *Psychology and the New Education*, New York, 1933.

courses of study, to these important variations between members of the group.

An Error That Teachers Often Make.—Although the very real differences between individuals in a class may have been recognized, provision for these has too often meant varying only the quantity of materials to be learned by the group without changing the nature or the quality of the educational experience very much. These "watered-down" courses frequently have little or no value for the pupil. They do not interest him, nor do they challenge him by arousing his curiosity and developing a desire to go farther. They are not significant to him because he does not see the relationship between them and his own educational or vocational goals. They are frequently recognized for what they usually are—meaningless, uninteresting, diluted subject matter of the traditional sort.

Adequate Provision for Individual Differences.—The intelligent teacher recognizes that pupils differ in their ability to read and evaluate the printed page and takes steps to adjust the materials accordingly. For example, in a course in elementary sociology, the more able pupils may be expected to read from several different sources dealing with a problem in order to enrich their background and understanding, whereas the slower, perhaps more limited pupils, will be expected to read less and to rely more upon such things as field trips, motion pictures, the radio, interviews, and discussions of the concrete aspects of the problem to add to their knowledge.

Adequate provision for individual differences, therefore, implies the need for a qualitative differentiation in course content. This individualization must take into consideration such things as mental age; physiological maturity, implying differences in basic interests; social background; special aptitudes or handicaps; and the condition of the individual with regard to his basic personality needs, such as energy, health, mastery of basic tools of learning, breadth of knowledge, and attitudes toward life. Only when a teacher recognizes these basic factors in learning and modifies or changes the things being taught rather than continuing to include certain traditional topics because illustrious men of the past have studied them will the school be meeting the needs of its diverse, heterogeneous population. Only then will it be educating all its pupils to the fullest of their capacities for mental, physical, emotional, social, and spiritual growth.

Basic Causes for Individual Differences.—The causes for differences between individuals are found both in heredity and in environment. Neither nature nor nurture alone can explain the wide range of differences in mental and physical traits found within the same classroom. There is a wide difference of opinion as to which is the more important, heredity or environment.

Heredity as a Factor.—At present, it is safe to assume that heredity is the determining factor in accounting for individual differences. It seems to set up in a very definite way the limit of development of each trait that characterizes the individual. Not even the most favorable environment will convert the congenital idiot into a brilliant student.

That heredity is a factor is shown in the study of the family history of exceptional people, famous and infamous. Excellent studies of this nature are to be found in Galton's *Hereditary Genius* and in Goddard's *Kallikak Family.* The influence of heredity is also revealed in the correlations between traits of related and unrelated individuals and in the study of identical twins. These are but a few of the many ways in which its determining influences have been studied. From them the conclusion can be drawn that heredity is a very important factor in accounting for likenesses and differences between individuals.

Environment as a Factor.—Environment, however, does make a definite, important contribution to human variability. It tends to determine how closely the individual is able to approximate the upper levels of his inherited capacities. A mediocre individual cannot be raised to the level of genius by his surroundings, but a slightly superior individual may never function above the level of mediocrity if his environment fails to furnish adequate stimulation for the development of his capacities.

The influence of environmental factors in producing dissimilarities between individuals is shown in the studies of the effect of foreign influences on the structure of the embryo, studies of foster children, studies of the influence of training on the variability of achievement, and studies of the decline of the intelligence quotient of children raised in poor environments.

Individual Differences: Implications for the Teacher.—The implications of these conclusions concerning the cause and nature of individual differences for teachers of the social studies, or for teachers in any other areas of study, are many and very important. They point clearly to the need for adjusting the objectives

of a given course to the needs, interests, abilities, knowledge, appreciations, and experiential background of the boys and girls in the class. In the interests of the mental health of his pupils, a teacher should always bear in mind that if the tasks set by the curriculum for a given pupil are beyond his capacity or maturity to accomplish, the ensuing repeated failure may be very difficult for him to overcome. The school or teacher should not permit any pupil to go through the experience of competing constantly with children on such terms that failure is inevitable but should modify the curriculum in whatever way and to whatever extent is necessary to insure his experiencing a fair balance between success and failure in the eyes of his classmates. Many teachers may be justly criticized for their failure to build their courses out of materials that show a close relationship to their pupils' experiences and that have a direct bearing on their capacities and needs.

These conclusions also imply the need for differentiating the methods of instruction and course content according to the individuals within the group. For example, there are rather obvious, marked differences between those pupils who learn rapidly and those who learn slowly. The slow learner finds it difficult to coordinate two or more mental functions, such as reading and evaluating what he reads, especially if the material is at all abstract. He assimilates new ideas and facts slowly. He learns most easily from simple, concrete, detailed materials. He is usually a slow reader with a rather limited range of interests in those things most easily learned from the printed page. He is rather literal-minded and given to making observations without generalizing. He often makes judgments without recognizing the insufficiency of his data. These are but a few of the characteristics of the slow learner which must be considered by the teacher in working out the educational experiences and course content, as well as in adapting his methods of teaching to the needs and abilities of the group.

In addition, these conclusions regarding individual differences point to the necessity for evaluating the progress of an individual in many ways other than by testing only for the acquisition of specific information by a written examination. Significant questions that a social-studies teacher should answer in planning all the work for a class are: "What changes in the life or behavior

of each pupil will result from this work or these experiences?" "In what classroom or life situations will these changes be manifest?" "What kind of record of these changes can be obtained?" "How shall this record be interpreted or evaluated so as to get a true picture of the pupil's growth?"

Individual Differences and Mental Health.—The evidence is clear that one method of reducing inequalities between individuals is to equalize opportunities. But this does not mean subjecting all pupils to the same educational experiences. Trying to do things clearly beyond one's powers is not educative; and no positive value attaches to the mere trying. Persistent effort at interesting tasks or to achieve desired results within the range of one's capacities, however, are beneficial. It is true that a person learns something of his own capacities by trying to do things that he cannot do; and if they are attempted on his own initiative, rather than under external pressure, no danger to his mental health is imminent. It is, therefore, imperative for all teachers of social studies constantly to reconstruct the curriculum, or course of studies, in the light of the growth of the individuals within the group.

Laws of Learning.—It is important, too, for teachers to remember in this connection that in any learning situation "two laws are operating: the law of continuity, and the law of interaction."[2]

The law of continuity implies that every experience undergone takes something from those experiences which have gone before and modifies in some way or to some degree the quality of those which come after. We are, in other words, the product of all our yesterdays. What has been experienced before by an individual is, therefore, very important in what the effect of his subsequent experiences will be. For example, a scientist and a savage would interpret an electrical storm quite differently because of their knowledge and past experiences with such phenomena. Because of the differences in their knowledge and understanding of abnormalities of conduct, a psychiatrist and a layman might widely disagree as to the causes of extreme deviations from socially acceptable standards of behavior. A teacher of economics and an adolescent, because of the differences in their educational background, probably would interpret differently the causes and

[2] For an extended study of these laws see John Dewey, *Experience and Education*, Chap. III, New York, 1938.

effects of a depression in the business cycle. Thus, the materials and experiences in a classroom or on a field trip, though apparently the same for each individual in the group, vary considerably because of the differences in the experiential background of each pupil. Connectedness in growth must be the constant guidepost of the teacher.

The law of interaction means that in any situation, there are two important factors which enter into and determine the result for the individual who is a part of it: the changing external conditions and the changes taking place simultaneously within the individual. These two factors enter into all normal human experience. For example, one person may abhor war with its wanton waste of life and property, its futility as an agency for social change, and its destructiveness of morality; whereas for another, war would provide an escape from an intolerable home situation, a relief from the monotony of a poor-paying job, a chance to become a person of note in the community, or an opportunity to fight for such ideals as democracy, liberty, and freedom from tyranny. In such cases, the external situation—the war—is the same; the internal reactions or changes vary from individual to individual to produce a different interpretation or effect. So it is with all situations in which human beings are involved, and nowhere is it truer than in the classroom or in some other educational activity. Herein lies one of the shortcomings of traditional education. It emphasizes or is concerned primarily with the external changes of the classroom experience and gives little or no thought to the powers, the purposes, and other subjective factors in the learner that will react to determine the effect on him of those changing conditions.

According to the newer concept of the educational process, the learner must now be conceived as a physical-social-emotional-intellectual being, actively responding to environmental changes of all sorts. An experience is, then, different in many ways for each pupil because of an interaction taking place between him and what, at the time, constitutes his environment, whether the latter consists of persons with whom he is talking, the subject being talked about, the toys with which he is playing, the tools with which he is working, the book that he is reading, the materials of the experiment that he is performing, or the teacher with whom he is associating or by whom he is being taught.

A teacher must take each individual as he is—the product of all his previous experiences. The teacher cannot control what has gone in the past. He has, however, the opportunity for determining the type of environment that will interact with the existing capacities and needs of those being taught in such a way as to create for them meaningful, worth-while experiences. It has been said that the teacher should spend half his time studying the individual pupils and the other half doing what this study shows needs to be done. There is much truth in this.

Methods of Meeting Individual Needs.—How is the social-studies teacher to adjust his objectives, his procedures, his course content, and his methods of evaluating the educational product to meet these individual differences within a group of pupils? Let it be emphasized that this is a difficult, time-consuming task, which at best can be done only imperfectly under present conditions. This is, however, no reason for not making the effort to do it. No more important problem confronts a teacher if the educational opportunities of his pupils are to produce significant growth. Many plans of teaching, many different curriculums, many systems of education have been devised in the attempt to teach each individual in the light of his basic personality traits and needs.

Classification by Grades.—The first adjustment made by schools to meet individual differences was that of grade classification. That this was obviously necessary is shown by the developmental changes—physical, mental, emotional, and social—that occur in pupils of school age. It is important to remember that the changes taking place during the secondary-school period are almost as marked as those occurring during the elementary-school period.

There are, for example, significant physiological changes during this period. Most noticeable, perhaps, are those of height and weight. From the ages twelve to eighteen, the boy changes in average height by about ten inches and in weight by almost fifty pounds. Similar growth on the part of girls is evident, although the gains are not so great. In addition, marked changes in the sexual maturity of both boys and girls give rise to new capacities, sensations, and interests. All these are important factors in any study of adolescents and in their effect on the selection of, interest in, and value of various educational experiences.

Marked changes in the interests of adolescents are also evident, changes that should affect the curriculum and methods of teaching if a teacher is to be really successful in adapting his course or his materials to his pupils. For many adolescents, the opinions of their associates gain in importance. More interest in cooperative games and activities is apparent. There is a marked increase of interest in the opposite sex. A greater seriousness about vocational opportunities and choices is observable. And religious and ethical issues and dogma are questioned more frequently and often with some impatience and intolerance. Good teaching in all fields provides for school experiences wherein the child is wholeheartedly active in acquiring the ideas and skills needed to deal with the problems of his expanding interests and life.[3]

One very important area of growth during this period, in both boys and girls, which is especially significant for teachers of the social studies, is that the size of the vocabulary changes both in the number of words that they are able to define or recognize and in the abstractness of these words or concepts. This means that they are better able to grasp fundamental concepts and to see relationships more clearly.

The justification for grade classification lies in the fact that this method makes partial adjustment for the differences between individuals of various ages. Its inadequacy is due to the fact that there are often much larger differences between individuals of the same grade than between the averages of the grades in the secondary school; but these differences are ignored in the traditional grade classification. This is, however, the most common method of adjusting work to individuals of different levels of maturity. It is the framework within which most teachers will have to work. It should not blind them, however, to the limitations inherent in it and keep them from adjusting the work of a given grade to the pupils in it.

Plans for Meeting Individual Differences.—Quite a number of instructional plans have been developed to cope with the problems of wide differences between individuals in the same group. Most of them attempt to socialize the individual and to prepare him for self-maintenance and membership in a social order by methods

[3] For a more extended treatment of these topics consult such works as that by Lois Meek and Others, *Personal-social Development of Boys and Girls*, New York, 1939.

that are different from the ordinary. These usually include the essentials of the ordinary curriculum and attempt to adjust them to differences in individual capacity rather than to differences in interests or in needs.

Differences in capacity are recognized and adjustments of procedure are made by: (1) variations in the rate of work, (2) variations in the quantity of work, (3) variations in the quality of work, (4) combinations of these.[4] The plans mentioned in the following paragraphs by special names are, in a sense, combinations of the first three features, but some give more emphasis to one than to another. Those which emphasize variations in rate of work are homogeneous grouping, the Dalton plan, and the Winnetka plan. Those which emphasize variations in quantity of work are the Morrison plan, the Wisconsin plan, the project method, and the other unit-assignment plans.

Homogeneous Grouping.—Homogeneous grouping refers to a classification based on criteria that are thought to be more adequate than the traditional one of chronological age. This plan is widely used. Its value depends upon the breadth of the base upon which the grouping is made and the differences in the instruction arising with respect to the abilities and the needs of the groups resulting from this classification. With this method of grouping, the "watered-down" courses for the least able groups are most apt to appear.

Many bases are used for homogeneous grouping. Some use the intelligence quotient and the chronological age; others use average scholarship marks in all subjects combined; and others rely upon still different techniques for combining pupils into such groups.

Homogeneous grouping is made to adjust the instruction to the needs and abilities of pupils in a particular subject. In using such a method, the first division, logically, should be made on the basis of capacity or levels of capacity. After these are separated, further classification on other bases, such as interest or previous experience in the subject, may be made. The most frequent error is to use too restricted a basis for grouping rather than too wide a basis.

[4] An excellent discussion of this and the following plans can be found in Homer B. Reed, *Psychology and Teaching of Secondary-school Subjects*, Chap. XV, New York, 1939.

Studies of homogeneous grouping do not agree as to the advantages and disadvantages of it.[5] In general, it may be said that homogeneous grouping is of most benefit to the slow group, then to the average group, and least beneficial to the fast group. Its principal disadvantage is that instruction is still based on group rather than individual needs and consequently fails to meet the wide individual differences that exist in the group selected for its supposed homogeneity.

The Dalton Plan.[6]—The Dalton plan is based on three principles, namely, freedom, cooperation, and economy of effort produced by carefully planning the work time. Under this plan, the pupil is free to decide the order in which he wishes to do his work. Provision is made for cooperation by allowing the pupils to work on their projects or to study together in the classroom or laboratory. Each one must plan his work so as to make for the greatest efficiency in the use of his time and effort. This plan is advantageous in that a pupil can work at his own speed and can avail himself of many sources of information to aid him in his work. It also gives him opportunity to develop self-reliance and initiative.

The Winnetka Plan.—Another well-known method, commonly referred to as the Winnetka plan, is characterized by a double curriculum, individualized work in skill subjects and group work in others.[7] The curriculum is made up of two parts—one including skill subjects and the other consisting of socialized and creative activities. In learning the skill subjects, each pupil works alone toward the mastery of goals determined by the school. The social and creative activities include athletics, social studies, dramatics, fine arts, industrial arts, and student government, all of which are done in groups. This plan has the advantage of permitting each pupil to progress at his own rate in necessary skills and yet does not keep pupils of varying ability apart on those activities or experiences where they might share in a mutually helpful way.

[5] For example, AUSTIN H. TURNEY, "The Status of Ability Grouping," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 17 (January, 1931), p. 23.

[6] For a more extended treatment see Helen Parkhurst, *Education on the Dalton Plan*, New York, 1922.

[7] See CARLTON WASHBURNE, *A Living Philosophy of Education*, New York, 1940.

Morrison's Plan.—Quite widely used today is the plan advocated by Morrison and bearing his name.[8] The method of organizing the units under the Morrison plan is characterized by five steps: exploration, presentation, assimilation, organization, and recitation. The exploration period is for purposes of revealing a pupil's background and experiences relating to a new unit of work. The presentation period is devoted to imparting to the pupils the major essentials of the new unit. The assimilation period is to give them an opportunity for systematic study of the materials of the work. The period of organization is given to organizing the facts of what has been studied into a logical outline. In the final period, the pupils who have mastered the work present it by way of floor talks, written reports, debates, panel discussions, and other similar procedures. This plan has the advantage that a pupil discovers his deficiencies at the beginning of a unit and so knows with what points he should begin his study; the presentation enables the pupil to get an overview of the work to be done; the assimilation period admits all available sources of information and all possible activities. This plan permits as much variation as to rate at which an individual does his work as is possible within the framework of the school's administrative schedule.

The Wisconsin Plan.—Another interesting attempt to meet the differences between the individuals within a group is the Wisconsin plan. It has, as its essential feature, the differentiation of the assignment, usually into three levels. One is for the inferior pupils, consisting of the so-called minimum essentials; one is for the average pupils which includes all of the first level plus some work that is both more difficult and more extensive; and one for the superior pupils which includes both the first and the second levels plus some work that is often of a creative or research character and that is selected because of its appeal to the peculiar interest of the individual. The principal advantage of this plan lies in its provision for a convenient way of adjusting instruction to individual differences without disturbing the traditional organization of the school.

Project Method.—The foremost characteristic, according to the exponents of the project method, is purposeful activity on the

[8] See Arthur C. Bining, and David H. Bining, *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools*, Chap. IX, New York, 1941.

MESTON TRAINING COLLEGE MADRAS-14

part of the pupil.[9] The purposes should be the pupil's own and grow out of his life situation. However, if the purpose is suggested by someone else, it should be wholeheartedly accepted by the pupil. The selection of the purpose is followed by thinking out ways of realizing it by the group and the formulation of a plan that calls for cooperative activity by the individuals in the group, each of whom specializes in that activity which interests him most but which inevitably makes a contribution to the attainment of the common goals or purposes. The advantages claimed for the project method are that the pupils work harder, retain longer, and develop more easily many related attitudes and capabilities because they have chosen to work on that aspect of the problem in which they have the greatest interest.

A Philosophy Regarding Individual Differences.—A consideration of the philosophy basic to successful teaching in the social studies, as in all other fields of education, leads one to conceive of education as the affording of experiences to pupils by which they come to understand the world and themselves, and learn to act effectively for the meeting of their own personality needs and those of the society in which they live. Such a concept of education points clearly to the necessity for keeping these educative experiences tuned to the developmental level of each pupil. It also indicates the need for planning the sequence of experiences in such a way as to provide a continuous stimulus to growth, because meaning is discovered through interrelationships between past experiences and present events. Finally, there must be an ordered relationship between the different experiences provided, lest incompatible concepts and desires be developed and the foundations for mental conflict be laid. There is every reason, then, for carefully investigating the appropriateness of the organization and content of the curriculum in the social studies. It must be evaluated in terms of its relationship to personality needs, its coherency, and its effectiveness in affording the pupil the beginning of an understanding of the various aspects of reality. Pupils differ from one another in ways that demand some differentiation in their treatment; the question of what educative experiences are appropriate for pupils of different capacities, temperaments, maturity levels, and cultural backgrounds is fundamental to successful teaching.

[9] See V. T. Thayer, *The Passing of the Recitation*, Boston, 1928.

Methods of Analyzing Pupil Difficulties.—After the teacher has studied his pupils and has made what seem to be the necessary adjustments of objectives, content, and method of teaching to meet the needs of the pupils in the class or group, he may still find that some individuals have difficulty in learning or seem unable to profit by the work. Various factors enter into efficient study, deficiency in any of which may limit or retard a pupil's achievements, and all of which can be studied or diagnosed by an intelligent, alert, interested, informed teacher. Some of these factors will have been studied in determining the work for the individuals in the group; all of them must be analyzed when an individual fails to make the progress of which he seems capable.

Physical Factors.—It has been well established that a pupil's physical condition is very important in any learning situation. Often, because of poor health, malnutrition, and visual, auditory, and other physical defects, he is unable to profit as fully as he might from his educational opportunities. Defective speech, lack of motor control, mixed dominance of eyes and hands, and glandular imbalance may also underlie scholastic difficulties. When present, all these interfere to a greater or lesser degree with the learning of certain basic skills, with the ability to concentrate or pay strict attention to a given task or to class activities and to sustain effort over a period of time. The pupil may even enter into maladjusted behavior in group activities.

The teacher should advocate a thorough physical examination as the first step in the diagnostic procedures whenever a boy or girl experiences difficulty in learning or whenever his behavior rather regularly varies considerably from what is normal for a youth of that age or from the code of the group of which he is a member. Teachers would do well to remember, however, that often lack of progress arises primarily from a lack of interest in what is being done or from a real inability to do the work expected, in which case there may be no physiological basis for irregular growth. Then, too, because of the rapid and disproportionate growth of the various parts of the adolescent's body, a pupil may be rather easily disturbed, fidgety, or restless. He is not ill or in need of a doctor's care, but he may not feel well nonetheless. The effective teacher of adolescents must have much understanding, tact, patience, and undiscourageable good will.

Intellectual Factors.—Sometimes pupils fail to make normal progress because of certain intellectual handicaps. One of the first steps in locating these is to determine, by appropriate tests, measurements, and observations, the individual's mental level: how does he compare with his group in the ability to learn? Another step to take in such a diagnosis is to test for certain special intellectual disabilities of which there are many different kinds. Some lie in the realm of perception; the pupil may be slow in the perception of diverse stimuli. He may be slow of insight or confused by the mass of new materials as he starts the study of a new unit or topic. Perhaps his previous experiences have limited his background for a given topic and make it difficult for him to "catch on" to the new work. Or he may be a slow reader, handicapped by faulty, inappropriate eye movements or a limited vocabulary, especially in the field of history or of the social problems under consideration. These are but a few of the many factors that may underlie poor progress.

To diagnose some of these difficulties, it may be necessary for the teacher to secure the help of experts, such as the school psychologist, a psychiatrist, or the school physician, if such are available.

Work Habits and Study Skills.—Again, unsatisfactory growth may be due to faulty methods of work or inadequate study skills for the specific field in which he is working. It is helpful for the teacher to make careful observations of the pupil at work to determine where the deficient or inefficient study habits may lie. Helpful questions to ask, in making such observations, include: "Does the pupil know exactly what he is to do, what his problem is, what the assignments include?" "Does he visualize his problem, or what he is to do, carefully and accurately?" "Does he see its relationship to the rest of the work of the group or to what has preceded it?" "Does he begin to work promptly and budget his time so as to get all the work finished on time, with a definite period set aside regularly for checking over his work and for review purposes?" "Has he the ability to concentrate his efforts over a period of time, or is he easily distracted?" "Is he able to work independently, or does he rely on others when the work becomes difficult?" "Is he habitually neat and orderly, and does he always organize his work carefully?"

In addition to these general work habits, there are certain specific study skills, the mastery of which makes for effective study in the social studies. In determining the causes for poor progress on the part of a pupil, the teacher should make careful observations of each of these: the narrowness or breadth of the pupil's intellectual background for a given topic; it may be a contributing factor to success or failure. Often, the lack of contacts with social and industrial life, through reading, excursions, travel, and the like, may be the cause of a limited experiential background which makes what is being studied lack meaning and interest for the pupil. Then, too, the social maturity of a pupil should be studied to see whether or not he is old enough to be interested in or feel the need for studying a certain unit. Emotionally, he may not be mature enough to study certain of the more controversial topics in which the beliefs that he holds may be seriously challenged. His whole sense of security may be undermined by going deeply into problems over which bitter partisan interests are present. Even though there may be no serious limitations of background for the profitable study of such problems or topics, other skills may be lacking.

Much of the successful work in the social studies depends upon a person's facility in obtaining the necessary information required for understanding and discussing historical movements, modern trends, and controversial issues. The pupil may not have had adequate training in the use of the table of contents, the index, the chapter headings, the paragraph headings, the *Reader's Guide*, the card catalogue, and other facilities of the library.

An inadequate understanding of metaphors, such as "open door," or "windows to the West," or slow insight into analogous situations may be important factors limiting understanding. Insufficient training in outlining and in organizing materials obtained from several different sources and inability to summarize effectively or to interpret data accurately may also retard a pupil's efforts to profit from certain types of work. Then, again, he may not have had enough training in making or reading maps, charts, or other graphic presentations of data and interpreting the data so given.

Perhaps the pupil is not really familiar with the different parts of a newspaper, or his knowledge of magazines is limited to a very few of rather poor quality. Pupils frequently do not ask ques-

tions as they read and discuss, thereby curtailing the amount of information and comprehension that they might otherwise obtain. With careful guidance, most pupils can gain considerable proficiency in these skills, and it is imperative that the teacher give such help when it is needed by any pupil.

Discussion plays a large part in the study of history and the various other fields in the social studies. Often, such discussions are of little value to a pupil, because he does not have the ability to follow the thread of an argument or to pick out basic assumptions, key points, and the conclusions to be drawn from a given set of data. To what he already knows he relates new materials slowly and hence does not see through a given problem so quickly as some of the others do. Or he may tend to rely on his memory rather than on an understanding of all the data of importance, with the result that he may frequently forget what he so laboriously tried to learn. In all these areas, a social-studies teacher must be ready to help a pupil who is floundering because he has not the necessary competency in them.

The alert teacher may find it necessary to give considerable help, especially during the early phases of the work, to some pupils whose written reports show poor organization or gaps in necessary knowledge or to those whose oral presentation of materials suffers because of poor diction, enunciation, pronunciation, and inflection.

Again let it be emphasized that if a pupil is to profit by the work, he needs, in addition to the materials with which to work, the necessary skills and tools for successful achievement. When he does not possess these—and few pupils in the secondary school have as much skill as they really need—it is the responsibility of the social-studies teacher to see that he gets the needed guidance and help even though logically it seems a part of the work of the English teacher, the mathematics teacher, or someone else in the school.

Other Factors.—Other things that must be studied when pupils in a group are obviously retarded in grasping new materials or in learning are the teacher's own techniques or class procedures. Sometimes the fault may lie in the way in which he gives assignments: they are not adequately explained or clearly stated, and thus a pupil may not know, much of the time, exactly what is required. Or his presentation of a topic or of a specific point

may not have been fully understood at the time, yet the pupil has not felt at liberty to ask questions that would have cleared it up. Some teachers develop habitual ways of illustrating a point, of opening a new discussion, or of summarizing data and thereby lack the necessary flexibility that will permit several different approaches to be made if the pupils do not "get it" the first time. This is particularly necessary with some of the complex, confusing problems with which a teacher of the social studies must deal. The attempt to reach a certain conclusion or to go over materials more rapidly than the individuals within the group can go and still insure adequate comprehension may be another contributing factor to slow learning or to a lack of it on the part of many pupils. Furthermore, the materials being dealt with or studied may have so little relationship to the pupil's needs, interests, and goals that learning is retarded. It may be difficult for a teacher to admit that he is at fault, but it is true, nevertheless, that quite frequently deficiencies in the teacher's own methods may be the greatest inhibiting factor in slow or retarded learning.

Two other areas in which difficulties may arise should be mentioned: the emotional and the social. For one reason or another, the pupil may have developed a dislike for the subject, or may believe that he "can't do it," or he may not see the value of it, or it may lie outside the range of his interests. He is therefore unable to do a thorough job of studying each assignment or phase of the work. Then, too, the pupil may not "get along" well with his classmates or with his teacher or with others with whom he lives or has to associate outside the school. This may cause him to daydream and to withdraw from class and social contacts; or it may cause him to become aggressive, loud, and braggadocian; he may develop other definitely unsocial traits. The teacher must analyze and evaluate his behavior and seek the type of stimulation and guidance that will initiate and sustain activity toward socially desirable goals.

The Teacher's Responsibility.—In any situation in which a pupil experiences difficulty in learning, is failing to make normal progress, finds it difficult to adjust to the academic work of the classroom, or is not well adjusted to the group, the teacher has an obligation to study the pupil as carefully and objectively as possible. He may need to call upon the help of the pupil's family physician, the school psychologist, or others who may be

able to help diagnose the difficulties and aid in the remedial measures. Exhortations, condemnation, branding the pupil as dull, stupid, or lazy are, on the whole, negative and often harmful procedures. They seldom, if ever, produce the desired results. The only possible and, indeed, justifiable procedure is to ascertain the causes of the difficulties that a pupil is experiencing. The teacher must do this if he is really interested in educating each pupil with whom he is given the opportunity to work.

Evaluating Pupil Growth.—The problem of meeting successfully the differences among individuals within a group raises certain questions about the methods of evaluating procedures and the educational outcome.[10] Continuous appraisal is essential for the effective direction of the social-studies curriculum if the ends of education are to be accomplished, namely, guiding the intellectual, physical, social, emotional, and spiritual growth and activities of each individual pupil so that he may function more capably and happily as a member of a cooperative, democratic society. Only by so doing can the teacher discharge his responsibilities to the pupil and to the community.

The learning activity of each pupil can be directed most intelligently and effectively only as his needs, his accomplishments, and his difficulties are discovered. Unless these are known, he may be guided only by his immediate interest or by blind faith in the value of socially approved learning activities. For this reason, continuous evaluation is necessary for the pupil. It is equally important for the teacher who is faced with the obligation of finding the points at which the curriculum is proving effective for each pupil and in order to help the learner select more helpful experiences at those points where the desired progress is not in evidence.

Another significant purpose of evaluation is to develop more effective materials and procedures through experimentation, the use and results of which must be constantly appraised as a safeguard to the child and to provide for continually improved educational resources.

Inadequacies of Most Evaluation Programs.—All too often, when current programs of evaluation are examined it is obvious that many of them are inadequate viewed in the light of the

[10] For a detailed analysis of this very important topic see National Education Association: *Fourteenth Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, Chap. XIII.

objectives for which a teacher professes to be working. One of the difficulties has been a narrow conception of the process of evaluation. To many social-studies teachers, evaluation is synonymous with giving a written examination of some kind. Such examinations may be used to give evidence of the information that pupils have acquired and to reveal various verbal reactions of pupils. These, however, are not the sole objectives of the social-studies curriculum. As a result of his experiences, the pupil should, for example, develop social interests, habits of working more cooperatively with other people, appreciations of the democratic way of life, and the habits of democratic procedures, as well as attitudes favorable to social improvement. A comprehensive program of evaluation should reveal the degree to which all these purposes are being realized. Written examinations must be supplemented by other types of evidence that will throw light on the pupil's development. Evaluation, then, is not merely the process of giving and scoring written examinations. It is the process of collecting all kinds of significant evidence showing the extent to which a pupil is growing in the direction of all these important educational objectives.

Course Objectives and Evaluation.—It is fairly easy to discover how much information each pupil has acquired as well as his knowledge of the vocabulary of the social studies. To determine the degree to which he has learned to use these in his daily life is more difficult. It is even more difficult to obtain valid evidence of changes in his attitudes toward social problems, to discover whether or not he has a deepening interest in social improvement, to find or measure his increasing social sensitivity. There is not always a high correlation between the degree of information that a pupil possesses and the degree to which he has attained other desired outcomes of education. Hence, the use of information tests alone will not give valid evidence of the degree to which other desired results of the social-studies curriculum are being realized. Any adequate evaluation program must involve the frequent collection and recording of a pupil's reactions and behavior. If a large enough collection is made, samples drawn from this will give a better picture of a pupil's growth than they will if the collection is small and sketchy.

In this connection, it is important to remember that the objectives for any course of study do not represent points to be reached

by all pupils. They indicate the directions in which pupils should progress. This is an important distinction. When objectives are conceived as uniform goals to be attained by all pupils, teachers often attempt to make all pupils do exactly the same things to reach these goals. In such cases, the evaluation program is used only to discover whether or not the pupils have reached the goals.

Such a conception overlooks all the facts concerning individual differences. As has been pointed out, individuals differ not only in rate and methods of learning but in interests, needs, and potential abilities. How far each pupil may be expected to progress toward any objective varies with his needs and interests and those abilities of his which are involved in this progress. For these reasons, some pupils will go farther in one direction, whereas others will make greater progress in other directions.

In this sense, objectives become individualized, as do teaching and learning procedures. Each pupil's pattern of goals is distinctly individual, and any evaluation should attempt to determine his progress toward those objectives which are appropriate for him. It is much easier to accept the median achievement of a group of pupils as the goal for each person than it is to try to formulate suitable individual patterns of goals. For this reason, the appraisal of each pupil's development in terms of goals appropriate for him is rarely ever made. This can be overcome in part by helping each pupil at regular intervals to set forth his own goals. Revision of his previous statements in the light of accumulating evidence of his needs, abilities, and achievements will then be necessary. As the individual periodically restates his purposes and goals, the teacher must appraise each pupil's progress toward them. This is not so simple as the common testing procedure of adding together a series of numerical scores and determining a class average which then becomes the criterion of success and failure. It is, however, the only sound evaluation program in a democratic society in which each individual is considered as having unique worth in and of himself.

Suggestions for an Evaluation Program.—The young teacher should not gain the impression that such a comprehensive program of evaluation is impossible because it involves the appraisal of so many types of behavior and the use of such a variety of instruments as to make it too cumbersome for the classroom

teacher to use. Certain basic considerations, if incorporated, can make a comprehensive program practicable.

In the first place, a teacher will find that if he makes his evaluation program an integral part of the learning process, it is not necessary to set aside separate periods of time for testing. A record of the pupil's activities in learning, the products of his activities in the classroom, the results of his own efforts and experiences—all afford excellent means for appraising certain aspects of his development.

In the second place, when pupils can be made to realize the significance of evaluation for them and are encouraged to make honest self-appraisals, it will be possible for them to collect much important evidence of their own development without placing an undue burden either upon themselves or upon the teacher.

In the third place, much time and effort can be saved if it is constantly borne in mind that many situations can be used for evaluation in which the reactions of the pupils throw light on their development in several directions. For example, an inventory of the resources and needs of the local community, a pupil's analysis of a controversial editorial, or his reaction to two or more different historical accounts of the same event makes it possible to collect significant evidence relating to several desired outcomes without consuming a relatively large amount of time in the process of appraisal. The more refined and analytical evaluation procedures can then be used for diagnosis with those pupils whose satisfactory progress is not revealed in these situations and only at those points where difficulties are obvious.

Continuous evaluation is essential. Only by such a program can a teacher determine the degree of effectiveness of his social-studies program and obtain an intelligent basis for curriculum improvement. An adequate evaluation program provides evidence of the degree to which all the important objectives of the school and of the course are being realized. For this purpose, teachers must increasingly use a variety of evaluation methods instead of limiting themselves to written examinations.

Summary.—A need exists for teachers to view each pupil as a unique personality, showing differences in abilities, capacities, interests, and previous experiences to which educational methods and materials must be adapted if maximum benefit is to come to each individual. Modern psychology stresses the importance of

this by picturing the pupil as an active being in whom the educational process produces changes. Thus the teacher's responsibility is now conceived as selecting the materials of education and the pupil activities with a view to articulating them with each pupil as he is, in such a way as to produce individually and socially desirable changes in interests, skills, understandings, appreciation, and knowledge. This cannot be done unless the teacher knows his pupils as individuals and makes a qualitative differentiation between course content and procedures to provide for these differences.

Heredity and environment are both important factors in producing differences between persons, although which is more important is debatable. At present, it is safe to assume that heredity sets up the limits beyond which a person cannot develop; environment helps to determine how closely he is able to approach the upper levels of his inherited capacities. The implication for teachers is obvious; work must be adjusted to meet these variations between pupils in the same class.

In any learning situation, two laws are operative: the law of continuity and the law of interaction. The former implies that every experience takes something from those which have gone before and modifies to some degree those which follow. The law of interaction points out that in any learning situation, two factors determine the result for the individual who is a part of it: the changing external conditions and the changes taking place simultaneously within the individual. These laws indicate the need for teachers to select with discrimination the materials that will interact with the existing capacities and needs of those he teaches in such ways as to create for them meaningful, worthwhile experiences.

To meet these individual differences, many methods have been devised, most important among them being the classification of pupils by grades and the attempts at homogeneous grouping as well as many individual plans like the Dalton plan, the Winnetka plan, and Morrison's plan.

In order to guide pupils successfully, many factors about them should be known by the teacher or counselor, especially in those cases where learning difficulties have arisen. Among the more important areas in which careful analyses should be made are physical condition and health; intellectual capacities; work

habits and study skills; the teacher's own methods of presenting, explaining, and summarizing the work; and the pupil's social adjustment.

The problem of evaluating a pupil's growth and development is an important one. Most evaluation programs are too narrow in their scope, reliance upon written tests and examinations constituting the sole criterion upon which many teachers base their judgments.

Any adequate program for appraising educational outcomes must be made in terms of all the objectives that have been set up for the work of the class. Such a program will include written tests, anecdotal records, reports on the pupil's free reading, his choice of topics on which to write, class participation, his ability to reason clearly, and many other ways of evaluation.

Questions

1. Why is a knowledge of the causes of individual differences so important for teachers?
2. What has modern psychology to say about the learning process and human variability? What are the implications of this for teachers?
3. What are some of the basic causes for differences among pupils?
4. Explain the two laws of learning given, and illustrate with your own examples.
5. What are some of the methods that have been devised to cope with this problem of individual variations?
6. If a pupil in a class is experiencing difficulties in making the expected progress, what are some of the factors that a teacher should analyze in his effort to locate the causes of these difficulties?
7. What are the chief inadequacies of most evaluation programs?
8. What is the importance of course objectives in an adequate evaluation program?
9. What are some of the more important techniques for appraising a pupil's growth and attainments?
10. Why is a broad evaluation program desirable?

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CHAPTER III

ORGANIZING THE MATERIALS OF INSTRUCTION

Formal Education or Real-life Experiences?—One of the most important educational problems of the present is that of relating the work of the classroom to the larger life outside the school. In other words, the activities and work of the school should be as real as possible and not artificial and stilted. In primitive societies, children develop as useful members of a group not through systematic schooling in formal classrooms but by direct participation in adult life. Boys learn hunting, fishing, and farming, as well as primitive virtues, directly from their fathers; girls are trained in domestic tasks and tribal ideals by their mothers. However, in a highly complex civilization such as ours, participation in the many forms of modern life is not possible without preliminary training that is definitely organized. This training must provide the experiences that will be of value to the pupils in the world outside the classroom and that will take into consideration the individual needs of the pupil as well as the requirements of society. Of necessity, however, the types of experiences in the modern school are: (1) vicarious and (2) real-life. It is obvious that, wherever possible, emphasis should be placed upon the latter.

Attempts to Make School Experiences Real.—During recent years, many plans of classroom teaching have been developed in theory and in practice. These are not the result of caprice but constitute an attempt to apply the formal work of the school to the lives of pupils in order that they may be given the necessary opportunities to train themselves to the greatest extent of their abilities and to take their proper places in a democracy. The project method, the problem method, supervised study, laboratory instruction of different varieties, and unitary procedures are some of the plans that have been developed toward this end.[1] These plans have evolved chiefly because of the attempt to make

[1] See Arthur C. Bining and David H. Bining, *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools*, Chaps. V–IX.

instruction real and worth while. Many of them emphasize methods and procedures; others stress the organization of the materials of instruction; a few, such as certain unitary plans, pay attention to both. It will be the purpose of this chapter to present the changes that have taken place in organizing the materials of the social studies from the formal organization of the nineteenth century to the broad unitary concepts of the present.

The Formal Organization of the Materials of Instruction.—When history entered the secondary-school curriculum in the nineteenth century, the organization of the course of study was chronological and encyclopedic. Since the procedure was chiefly that of learning by rote a number of dates and events—largely political and military—because of their supposed importance, the organization of the subject was almost entirely at the mercy of the writers and publishers of textbooks. In the teaching of history, too little attention was paid to understanding and interpretation or to the educative value of the different aspects of the materials of instruction, and none to the importance and worth of activities. Memorization and recall formed the basis of the principles of teaching, not only history but also political economy, political science, and civil government, where such courses were offered in secondary schools. This was largely true of all subjects in the curriculum of the schools during most of the nineteenth century.

The Topical Plan of Organization.—Before the end of the nineteenth century, forward-looking teachers expressed dissatisfaction with the older type of organization. A new plan, known as the topical method, came into use. This was used in different ways. Various topics within the field of study were given to individual members of the class, or the work was divided into topics to be studied by the entire class. The selection of topics in history varied from sets that included political, biographical, geographical, military, and other aspects of the subject to topics requiring investigation based on printed sources in spite of the dearth of such sources at that time. The latter plan became known as the source method and was used to some extent, especially in New England, at the end of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth century.

After being recommended by the Committee of Ten of the National Education Association in 1893 and the Committee of

Seven of the American Historical Association in 1898, the topical method made progress in many secondary schools, although the traditional procedure continued in a large majority of them. The new organization was praised by progressive educators. They pointed out that the plan required the use of several textbooks or reference books and that therefore understanding and thinking could be promoted in contrast to the memory work of the traditional method. As a result of the spread of the topical plan of organization, the dependence upon a single text was weakened, and the way was paved for other plans of organization.

The Extreme Topical Plan.—In recent years, some educators have advocated an organization that is the result of carrying the topical plan to an extreme. This type of organization provides "threads of development," or "threads of learning," such as transportation, communication, industry, and government, each of which is treated from early beginnings to the present. The plan has the advantage of following one line of thought throughout in a logical manner. The chief disadvantage is that there is little integration or even correlation among the different "threads." This plan of organization is often called unitary, although it does not conform to the general ideas that have evolved in regard to the unit.

In the field of history, the organization of the materials of instruction into "threads" is open to much criticism. The proponents of this plan suggest that the threads will become associated in their development and that a sense of time inevitably results in the mind of the pupil. It is doubtful, however, if he will be able to develop clear pictures of the different periods of history if this extreme plan is followed. In a unit, or thread, of this type on banking, a pupil may study the First Bank of the United States, organized under the guiding genius of Alexander Hamilton during the early years of the Republic. He may then trace in order the development of state banks, the story of the Second Bank of the United States, the origin and progress of the system of national banks begun during the Civil War, and so on through the long trek of financial history to the present—every instance being of national importance and also related to what went before as well as to what came afterward. However, he does not get a vision of each particular period which is so essential to an intelligent knowledge of the past. The establishment

of the First Bank of the United States, for example, was a part of the work of the new government under the Constitution. Its home, built in 1795, still stands in Philadelphia. Its outward classical lines reflect the taste that was developing in architecture when the American Republic was young. Inside its doors, the financial business of a growing and ambitious nation was carried on. During the controversy over its charter, the implied powers of the Constitution were called forth for the first time; and, partly because foreigners held some of its stock, it was refused an extension of life when its charter expired. The implications of this institution are broad and deep, reaching out into time and space. In order to understand the work of this important bank, an integrated knowledge of the political, social, and cultural aspects of the period is essential, and it cannot be obtained by a study of the financial thread alone.

The Rise of the Unitary Plan.—During the last two decades, the idea of unitary learning and teaching has made much headway. The term "unit" is sometimes used to denote a certain division of subject matter, such as a topic, a chapter, or a logical subdivision of a chapter. This connotation is not within the meaning of the term as set forth by the proponents of the unitary plan and will not be considered as such in this discussion. The concept of the unitary plan has gradually developed in recent years and has arisen as a consequence of the new democratic philosophy of education and the modern psychology of learning. The idea has taken many different forms and is being explained in several different ways.

The Influence of Gestalt Psychology on Unitary Organization. Many influences have aided in bringing about the acceptance of the unitary plan of instruction. Among these has been the approval of Gestalt psychology by many educators. The neurological theory of psychology which assumes the existence of specific nerve pathways, the resistance of which is lowered by repeated use, has been questioned by the Gestaltists. Instead of considering that certain stimuli produce definite responses because habit fixes a neurological pathway, this group of psychologists insist that actions cannot be isolated into elements such as reflexes and that mental states cannot be analyzed into various elements as sensations, images, and feelings. The Gestalt psychologists emphasize the unity of the human organism and

stress the idea that human behavior and reactions must be considered in complete wholes.[2] This psychology is based on the theory that physical, psychological, and biological happenings are formed through patterns or integrated units. Each pattern is called a Gestalt. This idea, therefore, has to be applied to the learning process. In accord with this psychology, the unitary plan provides for arranging the work and activities of a course into fairly large units, each focused upon some significant understanding or understandings, which together with an integrated combination of facts, skills, habits, attitudes, etc., modify a pupil's thinking or behavior and result in developing his personality.

Varying Concepts of the Unit.—Much educational philosophy has been centered around the unitary idea of instruction, and many experiments have been undertaken. This has resulted in varying concepts of this plan of organization. There is considerable difference of opinion as to the meaning of the term "unit" as well as to its interpretation. To many, the word denotes simply the selection of objectives, well-organized subject matter, and the provision for testing or evaluation. Teaching and testing, however, are usually carried on in old ways. The emphasis here is upon the selection and organization of the materials of instruction and not upon the pupil except, perhaps, for a due regard for the simplicity or difficulty of materials to suit the age of pupils or designed for a particular grade. The other extreme is reached by those who condemn the stress placed on subject matter and plan their units into a series of activities based upon real or spontaneous desires of pupils as well as upon their real or supposed needs. Between the extreme of the educator who emphasizes subject matter above all else and that of the enthusiast of the activity school are many varying concepts of the unitary plan. The best consider the needs, abilities, background, and preparation of the pupils, as well as the materials of instruction, procedures, and activities, all of which must be coordinated and unified in order to produce adjustments in the life of the individual.

[2] See John Elmgren, *Gestalt Psychology*, Goteborg, 1939; G. W. Hartmann, *Gestalt Psychology: A Survey of Facts and Principles*, New York, 1935; J. W. Thornton, Jr., "Gestalt Psychology of Learning," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 24 (March, 1938), pp. 177–194.

The Morrison Unitary Plan.—Discarding the concept of the unit that merely treats subject matter and little else, we may consider definitions and plans that are broader and deeper in scope. The definition of H. C. Morrison, who is largely but not entirely responsible for the popularity of the unitary idea, is that the unit is "some significant and comprehensive part or aspect of the environment or of an organized science, capable of being understood rather than capable merely of being remembered." A unit in history, according to this educator, consists "of the larger significant movements in human history which go far to explain the society in which he [the student] lives, and which develop in him a reasoning attitude toward the social world of today, in the place of an attitude of passive acceptance."[3]

The unit plan, as conceived by Morrison, varies according to the nature of the subject taught. He divides school subjects into five types which "characteristically differ among themselves in the nature of their objectives and in the psychology of the learning process."[4] These types are: (1) science, both physical and social; (2) appreciation, including moral behavior as well as literary and artistic appreciation; (3) practical arts, chiefly manual; (4) language arts, applicable also to musical and other expression; and (5) pure practice or drill. The methods and procedures applicable to each type necessarily differ. In criticism of this classification, it may be said that whereas history and the other social studies are included under type 1, it is evident that they contain important elements of several of the other types also. Morrison, of course, points out that similar principles are found in all types.

To all the subjects of the science type, including the social studies, Dr. Morrison applies his well-known "teaching cycle," the five steps of exploration, presentation, assimilation, organization, and recitation. These are carefully worked out steps that draw upon the best aspects of educational theory and practice.

The theory of this organization and procedure of teaching rests upon what Morrison calls the "mastery formula." This is as follows: "Pre-test, teach, test the result, adapt procedure, teach and test again to the point of actual learning."[5] There can be

[3] H. C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (1926 ed.), p. 189, Chicago.

[4] *Ibid.*, pp. 89–99.

[5] *Ibid.* (1931 ed.), p. 81.

no mastery until the new adaptation or central objective of the unit has been achieved. "Mastery implies completeness. . . . The pupil may have begun to learn. . . . But in the unit learning itself there are no degrees; the pupil either has it or has it not."[6] In the social studies, however, it is questionable if complete mastery can be obtained such as can be secured in the mastery of the fundamental processes in arithmetic. In history, for example, a pupil may understand certain facts and see their relation to each other and to a large movement or unit. But has he obtained complete mastery? Cannot his understanding be modified by future study? Mastery is progressive and not standardized; hence there are no definite levels where achievement ends.

Morrison's concept of the unit, both in theory and in practice, is a great advance over traditional practices. The emphasis upon understandings rather than facts, the unitary organization of materials and activities, and the thoroughness that must result if Morrisonian philosophy and practice are adhered to should result in much improvement in teaching the social studies in secondary schools.

The Unit of Adaptation.—Closely related in many ways to the Morrison unit is the unit of adaptation. Proponents of this plan of organization stress the unit of *learning* rather than the unit of *teaching*. The unit of learning is planned from the viewpoint of the pupil and is much concerned with his guidance in the learning process. Such a unit includes not only objectives, learning activities, and procedures but the motivation, stimulation, and guidance of the learning activities of the pupil as well as the evaluation of the outcomes. This type of unit has been defined as follows:

> The unit of learning consists of a group or chain of planned, coordinated activities undertaken by the learner in order to gain control over a life situation. The unifying principle is not the logical organization of the activities themselves, often thought of as subject matter, nor a center of child interest, but the learning product to be achieved. This learning product is not merely a skill, a habit, an attitude, etc., but such

[6] H. C. MORRISON, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (1931 ed.), p. 36.

an integrated combination of these as will result in the adjustment of the individual to a life situation.[7]

The essential elements of such a unit are:

I. Objectives
  A. Central—the adaptation
  B. Contributory
    1. Fixed associations
    2. Interpretative masteries
    3. General patterns and emotional factors

II. Acceptance of objectives by pupils

III. Selection of activities

IV. Evaluation—the determination in the change of behavior.

Although the emphasis in this type of unit is on the pupil, or learner, the teacher has a most important part to play, especially in guiding and motivating every step. The following are among the motives that may be used: (1) a sense of need, (2) interest, and (3) incentives that spur to activity. The important viewpoint in this form of organization is the growth of pupils as integrated personalities and not merely the mastery of subject matter. The teacher, therefore, must have a broad educational background and a thorough understanding of the principles of psychology.

Correlated, Fused, and Integrated Units.—The plans discussed so far treat the organization of the materials of instruction and the activities of learning within the separate subject-matter fields. The chief value of such types of units lies in their orderly and logical form of organization. Some educators, however, have felt that the separate subjects, although greatly enriched and expanded in the social studies during recent years, do not afford sufficient materials to achieve the modern objectives of education. Thus, different patterns of organization have been developed which, in general, make use of the materials of more than one field or cut across subject boundaries. Since these plans approach the proportions of movements, they will be treated fully elsewhere in this volume. But in order to aid in making a comparison of the different types of units, they will be briefly defined here.

[7] A. J. Jones, E. D. Grizzell, and W. J. Grinstead, *Principles of Unit Construction*, p. 19, New York, 1939.

In the correlated unit, the attempt is made to seek and to utilize points of contact and relationships between two or more subjects in order to bring about associations in the various parts of the curriculum. For example, relationships between history and English literature or among history, geography, and government can be made the basis for organizing the unit. In usual practice, the materials from two or more related fields are presented with alternating attention to each, or the relationships between the different aspects of the subjects may be stressed.

In the fused or fusion unit, the subject boundaries are entirely discarded. The emphasis is upon the establishment of social objectives and the selection of functional materials of instruction that will bring about their achievement. The traditional arrangement of the separate subjects and their special viewpoints are ignored entirely, and the selection of subject matter is made without any regard to whether it may be in the field of history, geography, civics, economics, or other subjects.

The term "integration" is used to connote units of understanding that consist of integrated materials of instruction from several fields to present a complete picture of a phase of knowledge rather than a part of it. The materials are interwoven, and the emphasis is upon completeness. For example, government is but one aspect of the life of a nation; the social, economic, cultural, and other aspects should be integrated with government and with one another if an integrated unitary organization is desired.

Comparing these three types of units—correlated, fused, and integrated—it may be said that correlation seeks and utilizes relationships between the subjects and fusion obliterates subject boundaries to achieve objects that are set up, whereas integration seeks the materials and values of different fields in order to unify and to interweave the various factors that will result in a complete aspect of knowledge. From this last concept, several plans have developed, which go much further than the integration of subject matter. They attempt to integrate to a greater or lesser extent all the experiences of the learner and bring out the idea of *integrated learning*. These will now be discussed.

The Center-of-interest Unit.—Several years ago, John Dewey pointed out that the traditional concept of the curriculum as a group of subjects, each having inherent values, paralleled the idea of society as a conglomerate of business, art, religion, politics,

and other separate fields. He emphasized the "unity or integrity of experience."[8] In many schools where such new curriculums are being tried, less stress is placed on subjects and more on unified experience. One plan, which has become important in the elementary schools but which has also been tried in a number of secondary schools, has been to organize experiences around the interests of the pupils. The result has been the development of the "child-centered" school where the curriculum is organized into units based on centers of interest.

This plan has been carried to an extreme in many schools. The traditional curriculum was imposed upon pupils by the teacher without much consideration for the needs and interests of the learner. The tendency in many child-centered schools has been in the direction of another extreme—to permit pupils to do as they please, regardless of whether their interests lead to worth-while experiences or not. A curriculum should not be developed from either extreme—domination by the teacher or on the basis of the unregulated interests of pupils. It should attempt to provide learning situations based on interest, but the resulting experiences should be of importance and value to the individual and should especially be socially significant. The center-of-interest unit has many excellent features in that it stresses pupil participation in organizing the unit, pupil activity, and experiences developed around a central theme of interest, and makes use of all types of subject matter and activities. But it has been criticized for its lack of direction and because attention is centered on the activity, enterprise, or project and not upon the educational outcomes or the "adaptation in personality."

The Activity Unit.—Although the activity-unit plan has chiefly affected the elementary school, it has touched the periphery of the secondary school and therefore will be discussed briefly. It is closely related to the center-of-interest plan of organization and by some writers is often confused with it. Its distinguishing features are found in its stress upon activities that are self-initiated and the emphasis upon the pupil considered in relation to his environment—local, national, international, and contemporary. The play and the recreational and social life of pupils are utilized in the classroom to bring associations and learnings that

[8] John Dewey, *The Way out of Educational Confusion*, pp. 283 *ff.*, Cambridge, Mass., 1931.

will result in emotional satisfactions. Behind the activities lies the force of the pupil's own interests in developing his personality. By participating in worth-while activities, he grows socially, emotionally, and physically as well as mentally. According to proponents of this plan, its highest educational value is its emphasis on social relationships. Conversation, courtesy, and cooperative activities become an essential part of the work.[9] The activity program offers advantages for the development of the special talents of pupils, as well as opportunities to meet situations in which new knowledge, attitudes, and habits are needed, and provides for the growth of the teacher who is required to enter new fields of knowledge and interests in order to meet the needs of pupils. On the other hand, the plan has been criticized because activities often become artificial, and the chief end of the plan thus defeated. The real value of many of the activities in this type of program has been questioned. Moreover, too often there is little connection between one activity and another from the point of view of apperception, and the true end of education, which is growth, may be defeated.

The Experience Unit.—A most recent development in unitary procedure is the experience unit. Although there are many different concepts of this type of organization, certain underlying principles can be discovered that distinguish it from other types. These units are based on the needs of the individual and of society, and content is selected and arranged to aid in meeting these problems and needs rather than on the basis of logically or even unitary organized subjects. The chief criticism of the subject basis of curriculum organization, regardless of plan, is that of the ineffectual use of much of the subject matter as well as many of the activities in everyday living and in preparing to live in the future. The organization of units of experience guides pupils into vital experiences that are an integral part of life. It makes use of certain aspects of subject matter but has no regard for the separate subject fields as such.

The concept of the unit of experience has been developed because more attention is being given today to the need for the

[9] For a list of social activities possible in the classroom see J. W. Wrightstone, J. Rechetnick, W. A. McCall, and J. J. Loftus, "Measuring Social Performance Factors in Activity and Control Schools of New York," *Teachers College Record*, 40 (February, 1939), pp. 423–432.

all-round development of the pupil and to aid him in developing the ability and desire to participate effectively and happily in major areas of living. Many areas of human experience have been set forth by committees and individuals. The Joint Committee on Curriculum of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction and the Society for Curriculum Study have recommended the following as a basis for such a curriculum: (1) living in the home, (2) leisure, (3) citizenship, (4) organized group life, (5) consumption, (6) production, (7) communication, and (8) transportation. Within these areas, units of experience are organized.[10] The newer curriculums, such as core curriculum, and plans such as the Virginia and Pennsylvania plans provide for organization of similar areas into units of experience.

A curriculum organized on the basis of subjects that separates school experiences from real-life situations is to be condemned. Facts, principles, generalizations, ideas, ideals, and skills are significant in a pupil's life only when he can use them to meet situations that he must face. Thus such an organization emphasizes the development of understanding the society and world in which one lives and a genuine desire to aid in improving them; the mastery of certain skills, techniques, and habits actually necessary in everyday living; provision for pupils to engage in creative, artistic, and recreational activities; and opportunities for them to develop individual tastes and interests.

Which Is the Best Type of Unitary Organization?—A study of the various types of units will reveal that their differences lie chiefly in emphasis; in point of view; and, to some extent, in philosophy. One stresses mastery; another, the changes that take place in the personality of the learner; still others point out the importance of broad fields of learning from which to select materials to achieve social objectives. One emphasizes the factor of interest; another, the importance of activities; still another brings out the values of organization on the basis of areas of human experience. The question arises as to which is the best type of organization in the social studies in secondary schools. In our present state of knowledge, it is not possible to generalize and state that one is far superior to another. The selection of the plan of organization will depend largely on the ability and training of the teacher as well as the types of pupils in the class.

[10] Henry Harap (Chairman), *The Changing Curriculum*, New York, 1937.

The wise teacher will select the best from the different unitary plans in keeping with his own purposes. Less emphasis on subject matter and more upon making the experiences of pupils life-centered, purposeful, and dynamic, as well as providing pupils with opportunities for creative expression, critical and reflective thinking, harmonious cooperation, and for making choices, should be the underlying principles in organizing the curriculum.

Summary.—The work of the classroom should be related to life outside the school and should not be artificial and stilted. Of necessity, school experiences are: (1) vicarious and (2) real life. Wherever possible, emphasis should be placed on the latter. The many plans and procedures as well as types of organization that have been developed in theory and in practice in the schools in recent years represent attempts to make school life more real.

The organization of the course of study in history and the other social studies during the nineteenth century was formal and encyclopedic and was at the mercy of textbook writers and publishers. The procedure was chiefly memory work, and little attention was paid to understanding, interpretation, or activities. Before the end of the nineteenth century, the topical method was used by progressive teachers, although its use slowly spread. This method weakened the dependence on a single text, and the way was paved for other plans of organization. The extreme topical plan of recent years has resulted in a type of organization known as "threads of development," or "threads of learning." This plan has the advantage of following one line of thought in a logical manner; its chief disadvantage is that there is little integration among the different "threads."

The most recent concept of organization is the unitary plan which has taken many different forms and has been influenced by Gestalt psychology. Ideas of the unit vary from subject matter units at the one extreme to activity units at the other. The best type of unit considers the needs, abilities, and background of the pupils as well as the materials of instruction, the procedures, and the activities that must be organized in unitary fashion to produce adjustments in the life of the individual. Emphasis, however, must be on integrated learning and the learner.

The Morrison plan includes the organization of broad units, a "teaching cycle," and a "mastery formula." Emphasis is upon understandings rather than facts and the unitary organization of

all aspects of the teaching process. At least thoroughness will result if the Morrison plan is followed. Closely related to this plan is the unit of adaptation, which stresses the learner rather than the teacher. It pays particular attention to guidance and considers the learning product as an integrated combination of coordinated activities that "will result in the adjustment of the individual to a life situation."

In an attempt to break away from the separate fields of subject matter, several types of units have been developed that make use of materials in more than one field of knowledge or cut across subject boundaries. The correlated unit seeks to utilize relationships among two or more fields. In the fused unit, subject boundaries are discarded. To achieve the social objectives set up, materials are selected from any field of knowledge. The integrated unit selects and integrates materials and values from different fields in order to present a complete phase of knowledge. The concept of the integrated unit has resulted in several other plans that stress *integrated learning.*

The center-of-interest unit has played an important part in organizing the curriculum in many elementary schools but has also affected some secondary schools. In the child-centered school, the curriculum is organized into units based on centers of interest. Such an organization stresses pupil participation in organizing the unit, stresses pupil activity, and makes use of all types of subject matter and activities. It has been criticized for its lack of direction and for centering attention on the activity rather than on the educational outcomes. Related to this type of unit is the activity unit. It also has been developed chiefly in the elementary school, although it has affected some secondary schools. It stresses activities that are self-initiated and considers the pupil in relation to his entire environment. The play, recreational, and social life of pupils are utilized to develop the pupil socially, emotionally, and physically as well as mentally. This type of unit provides especially for the development of social relationships and offers advantages for developing the special talents of pupils. It has been criticized because activities often become artificial, and the value of many activities has been questioned. Too often, there is little connection between activities, which might result in defeating the real end of education—growth.

A most recent development in unitary procedure is the experience unit. Based on the needs of individuals and society, the content of such units is selected and arranged to guide pupils into vital experiences which are an integral part of life. It has no regard for traditional subject-matter lines but organizes materials on the basis of actual areas of human experience, such as living in the home, the use of leisure, and other areas. Core curricula and plans such as the Virginia and Pennsylvania use such units.

The different types of units vary in emphasis; point of view; and, to some extent, philosophy. They stress various aspects from mastery, adaptation, broader syntheses of learning, interest, and activities to organization on the basis of areas of human experience. At present, it is not possible to state that one form of organization is superior to another. The ability and preparation of the teacher as well as the type of pupils influence the selection of a plan. The best and most suitable ideas should be selected from the various types of organization. Among the underlying principles for organizing the curriculum should be an emphasis on making the experiences of the pupils life-centered and dynamic. Opportunities should be afforded pupils for creative expression, critical and reflective thinking, and for making choices.

Questions

1. Discuss the two broad types of school experiences, giving examples of each.
2. Criticize the formal organization of the curriculum in the nineteenth century.
3. Why was the topical plan of organization an improvement over the formal plan? How did it pave the way for recent types of organization?
4. Point out the advantages and disadvantages of the use of "threads of development," or "threads of learning."
5. What influences have brought about the acceptance of the unitary plan of instruction?
6. Characterize the subject-matter unit.
7. Show the similarities and differences between the Morrison unit plan and the unit of adaptation.
8. Compare and contrast the correlated, fused, and integrated unit.
9. Show the similarities and differences between the center-of-interest unit and the activity unit.
10. What is meant by the unit of experience? Discuss its chief characteristics. Do you believe that it is superior to other plans of organization? Why?

11. What are the chief differences among the various types of units discussed in this chapter?

12. Make a list of what you consider to be the best principles for organizing a unit.

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CHAPTER IV

AMERICAN HISTORY

American History in the Curriculum.—The increasing importance of national cultures during the past century makes it quite logical that American history should be one of the principal subjects of instruction in the social studies in the United States,[1] that English history should be a part of the program of English schools, and that French history should be required in French schools. This does not mean that national history should be taught to develop supernationalists and chauvinists. Much in the story of each nation is common to all mankind and, if carefully presented, can make only for a better understanding among nations and peoples. A truthful presentation of national development will not fail, furthermore, to point out weaknesses as well as strengths. The emphasis in this chapter will be upon the teaching of American history in the secondary schools, since much thought is being given at the present time to reorganization in that area of education.

Aims and Objectives.—In presenting any field of the social studies, it is quite necessary to have definitely formulated objectives. Although teachers of the social studies are constantly striving to make objectives really significant, they frequently state them in terms that are too general, especially in the course in American history. "Preparation for citizenship," for instance, may mean participation in school and community activity, or it may mean the development of an adequate philosophy of life. The important thing is that the chosen purposes should mean something definite in the mind of the teacher so that materials for study, classroom methods, and evaluation can be centered upon the achievement of selected objectives. The objective "to make the pupils critical minded" may mean to teach them to understand how they have formed their opinions, or it may signify to

[1] H. E. Wilson, "American History in the Social Studies Program," National Council for the Social Studies, *Sixth Yearbook* (1936), pp. 39–49.

make them aware of propaganda, or it may include these and other ideas. The important fact is for the teacher to make his purpose definite so that his teaching can be efficient. In a democratic country, preparation for citizenship should be preparation for actual participation in a free society. This implies learning how to make intelligent choices, for it is only by actual experience that a genuine appreciation of democratic procedure is developed. Critical-mindedness should include knowing the efforts made by pressure groups to establish their points of view and knowing how to determine truth. It should certainly be the purpose of a teacher in a democracy to show that nations, races, and classes are interdependent. The fact that the United States is a product of the mingling of races and cultures gives ample opportunity to make this objective real. Certainly skill in the obtaining and evaluating of information should be a purpose in the teaching of all history. The teaching of American history, furthermore, should stimulate a respect for the opinions and rights of others, and a well-grounded pride in the achievements of individuals, the community, and the nation, as well as a genuine appreciation of the great American traditions and a love for the ideals of those who laid the basis for this country. Finally, no teaching of the social studies can be adequate unless a continuing interest in social thinking and activity is developed.

The Problem of Interest.—Pupils coming to secondary school have usually had two or more years of American history and biography as a part of their elementary education. Because this work has frequently included repetitions, the pupil sometimes comes with a dislike for the subject. For the abler ones, this distaste can be offset by a more mature approach to the materials. In a unit covering the age of discovery and exploration, for example, pupils are much interested in the underlying causes and events. If the westward explorations are presented as a larger world movement in which a group of new nations were trying to break the monopoly of eastern trade held by the Italian cities, the story becomes a little more complex but also more interesting. Colonization can now be shown as a phase of European expansion, a world movement that continued for several hundred years.

A discussion of the colonial period cannot avoid touching upon important underlying currents that led to such significant

developments as experiments in religious tolerance, the growth of representative government, and the growth of the spirit of independence. Anyone teaching near Philadelphia, for example, is impressed by the fact that it was one of the early centers of research. A city that could claim Benjamin Franklin and John Bartram was a center of some scientific importance. In addition to this, prison reform was put into practice before European sociologists began to theorize about it. Here we have the first medical school and the first college in which secular learning received full recognition. Philadelphia is not unique in the possession of such resources. In every state and community are abundant materials that can be used not only to vitalize the whole subject but also to develop an interest in history on the part of both pupils and parents. This is already being done successfully in various parts of the country.[2]

In a similar manner, the revolutionary period gives an opportunity to present such problems as currency inflation, the influence of the frontier, and the clash between central and local governments. All these have a modern application and are of interest to pupils because of this fact.

American history also furnishes excellent opportunities to study the transit of ideas. The great intellectual upheaval in Europe, which gave the world a Bacon, a Descartes, a Locke, a Newton, and a Voltaire, was followed in the colonies by the organization of the Junto in Philadelphia and the very solid and widely recognized achievements of Franklin, Rush, Bartram, and Rittenhouse. European currents of thought furnished much of the inspiration for the political ideas and the literature of the American Revolution. In the nineteenth century, the influence of such men as Darwin and Marx, as well as the coming of millions of immigrants, had definite effects on the development of American institutions and American life. At the same time, it is always interesting to study the influences going back across the Atlantic in the form of business organization and applied science. Because of the cross currents of civilization, the story of American development should be presented as a part of the larger world picture.

[2] William J. Petersen, "The Use of Local History as a Tool in Studying American History," National Council for the Social Studies, *Ninth Yearbook* (1938), pp. 101–110.

For less able pupils, reorganization of the material is necessary. An emphasis on the concrete rather than the abstract, stress upon social and cultural phases of American history rather than abstract political or economic theories, the use of community resources, excursions to study important activities—all aid in stimulating interest in the pupil who is a slow learner. The use of the motion picture and other visual aids is valuable. Pupils who are slow readers frequently enjoy the drawing of maps, sketches, and other illustrations. If at all possible, it is of much value to present material in cooperation with other departments. In this way, interest and effort can be focused on common objectives and material. Cooperative effort by several teachers makes possible a better understanding of the pupil and for that reason produces better results in his achievement.

Gradation of American History.—The problem of adapting the materials to various age and ability levels has never been fully solved. Under present conditions, it is possible to have a general course in American history at the elementary, junior-high-school, senior-high-school, and junior-college levels. It is probable that a unit on exploration and colonization is taught at each of these levels. Although there are real values in repeating certain aspects or phases of work at various levels, such repetitions should be a part of a regularly planned sequence. The story of the Populist party and its reform program may well be a part of a senior-high-school course. The analysis of the economic conditions producing this party and a critical evaluation of its program might better be postponed until the junior college. It is possible to include a unit on propaganda in the junior-high-school course and postpone the analysis of public opinion to the more mature approach of the last year of the senior high school. One of the most important facts to be considered by teachers of the social studies in secondary schools is the difficulty that pupils have in comprehending the printed page. An understanding of these difficulties and the development of workable vocabularies for the texts at the various age and ability levels will go far toward solving many of the problems that pupils have in comprehending material assigned to them.[3]

[3] William V. Badger, The "Grade Placement of Social Studies Materials," *Social Studies*, 31 (May, 1940), pp. 210–219.

Several proposals have been made with regard to the nature of the units taught at the various levels.[4] One of these proposals would place emphasis on the earlier periods of American history in the elementary courses, would study the early national period in the junior high school, would cover the period since 1865 in the senior high school, and would then reemphasize the earliest period with its European connections plus a study of American development as part of world history in the junior college. Several of the proposals can be undertaken if the plan is carried out cooperatively. The main thing to be considered in such a scheme is the unnecessary repeating of unimportant material. No boresome repetition is necessary in a field with such unlimited resources as are to be found in American history.

Arrangement of Materials.—The arrangement of materials may be either topical or chronological. If the topical method is used, the procedure is to divide the course into carefully organized topics. This requires guidance outlines in order to keep the pupil from being confused. Some teachers and pupils prefer this method because it seems more logical. The chronological arrangement attempts to preserve a time sequence, although this is not always possible. Many pupils prefer this method because it preserves a definite relationship that makes the material more understandable. It is, of course, possible to teach by one method and review by the other. This brings up the question of dates. Mere memorization of dates is deadly and has no place in the teaching of social studies. At the same time, a chronological sense is necessary in historical study. Significant dates should be selected before presenting a course in American history. The teacher should select dates to be stressed for their own importance and also because they may be used in their relationship to other events. The year 1795, the date of the Jay treaty, an important event in itself, is much more easily remembered when one knows that it hastened a treaty with Spain in the Southwest and took place very near the time of an important Indian treaty in the Northwest. Emphasis on the time relationship between events is important. It should be clear to students that the Louisiana

[4] Elmer Ellis, Fremont P. Wirth, John R. Davey, Edgar B. Wesley, "American History in Junior and Senior High School," *Social Education*, 3 (March, 1939), pp. 191–196.

Purchase followed the Pinckney treaty and that James Madison was President before John Quincy Adams. Instead of being a dry-as-dust process, time location becomes an efficient method for finding one's way through historical periods. The location of an event in a certain time interval is used effectively in some standard tests. In the exercise below, the left-hand column indicates certain time intervals: the first, for instance, before the discovery of America; the second, between the discovery of America and the settlement of Plymouth. The events in the right-hand column are to be located in the proper time interval listed in the left-hand column. Since the defeat of the Spanish Armada, 1588, came between the discovery of America and the settlement of Plymouth, it is placed in interval (2); and since the capture of Constantinople occurred before the discovery of America, it is located in interval (1).

(1) ――――――――	
Discovery of America	Defeat of the Spanish Armada
(2) ――――――――	
Settlement of Plymouth	Capture of Constantinople by Turks
(3) ――――――――	
Glorious Revolution	Accession of the Stuarts
(4) ――――――――	
Treaty of Utrecht	Bill of Rights
(5) ――――――――	
	End of French and Indian War

Organizing Units.—A wide range of factors have to be considered when suggesting suitable units for the secondary-school level. Some of these are the ability of the pupil, the necessities of college preparation, the equipment and training of the teacher, and contemporary social and economic problems. Each teacher, therefore, will find it necessary to organize the unit of teaching according to the objectives formulated and with reference to the interests, needs, and abilities of the students. A rather formal arrangement of units for the senior high school might include the following:

1. European contributions to American civilization
2. The War for Independence
3. The formation of the union
4. Establishment of the American nation
5. Westward expansion
6. The Civil War and reconstruction

7. The period of industrialization
8. The development of the United States as a world power
9. Postwar readjustments

In this arrangement, about one-half of the time can profitably be spent on the last four units. Each unit is so organized that there are many opportunities for carrying the work beyond the beaten paths. The third unit supplies ample material for studying the Constitution not as a historical document alone but also as a living and changing part of our governmental system. A warning must be voiced with regard to all unit arrangements. They are suggestive rather than definitive. Teachers will find it necessary to make many changes.[5] Provision must also be made for integrating activities within the unit and for developing certain attitudes, habits, and ideals.

Units may be arranged topically, although it is frequently advisable to provide some kind of chronological overview. Pupils on the secondary-school level feel somewhat insecure when they lose the sense of time relationship. A list of topical units from the Revolution on might include the Revolution, westward expansion, population and immigration, the farm problem from the Civil War to 1914, the labor movement, conservation of natural resources, the development of American culture, the Progressive movement, American imperialism, and postwar readjustments. This list, again, is merely suggestive and can be used as the teacher sees fit.

An outline of one of these units is as follows:

The Labor Movement

I. Status of labor before the Civil War
 A. Factors that make for a distinct labor movement in the United States
  1. No hard and fast classes
  2. Wide extension of suffrage
  3. Free land

[5] No social-studies teacher can afford to be without the very valuable book published by the National Council for Social Studies, *The Future of the Social Studies: Proposals for an Experimental Curriculum*, edited by J. A. Michener, Cambridge, Mass., 1939. In this volume, leading social-studies teachers of the country propose various curricula and an interesting series of teaching units.

B. Labor organizations before the Civil War
  1. Political experiments
  2. Methods used
  3. No great development before the Civil War

II. Labor after the Civil War
  A. Trade-union organization during the war
  B. Post-Civil War organizations
    1. National Labor Union
      a. Character
      b. Failure
    2. Knights of Labor
      a. Nature
      b. Program
      c. Causes for failure
    3. The American Federation of Labor
      a. Type of organization
      b. Program
      c. Limitations
    4. More radical organizations
      a. The Industrial Workers of the World
      b. The anarchists
  C. Labor policies
    1. Political action
    2. Strikes
  D. Labor relations with the public
    1. Public distrust of labor policies
    2. Unfavorable attitude of the courts
  E. Labor and the New Deal
    1. Laws to preserve labor's purchasing power
    2. Protection of the right of collective bargaining
  F. The place of labor in a democracy

Weaver and Hill suggest that three different types of units may be used in organizing a course in American history. The following are suggested for the whole course in the junior high school:

1. How we became Americans
2. How England gained control of North America
3. How America became an independent nation
4. How we secured our national government

5. How our national government was tested
6. How Negro slavery was destroyed
7. How Americans won the West
8. How big business developed in the United States
9. How America became a world power[6]

Units 1, 7, 8, and 9 begin with an early period of history and come down to the present. Units 2, 3, 4, and 6 necessarily end some time in the past, as, for instance, Negro slavery which became a dead issue in the United States after 1865. Unit 5 begins where unit 4 ends, which illustrates another type of unit in history. Within each unit, the materials should generally be arranged in chronological order, although some educators advocate a psychological approach to each unit.

It is not easy to organize the materials of history into units. Many phases of history do not lend themselves to convenient divisions. The problem arises as to whether certain aspects of history can be best studied under one unit heading or another. One is always faced with the problem of determining what is a "significant and comprehensive part or aspect of the environment" or even, in some cases, an important movement.

The Use of Geography in Teaching American History.—American history is most effectively taught in its geographical setting. Over three decades ago, Ellen Churchill Semple emphasized this fact in her excellent *American History and Its Geographic Conditions*, which has been revised in recent years. A. M. Schlesinger in his *New Viewpoints in American History* devotes a very significant chapter to geographic influences in American history; and Albert Perry Brigham's *The United States of America* is useful to the teacher of history concerned with geographic factors. Again it should be said that the work must not become routine. Archer Butler Hulbert has pointed the way in his *Historic Highways in America*, where he actually dramatizes every important early highway in the country. The new series of volumes (The Rivers of America Series) telling the story of the important rivers is worth while in this connection. River valleys, mountain passes, canals, soils, forests, and mines are all of vital importance to people, and their use is always a striking story. When people

[6] R. B. Weaver and H. C. Hill, *United States History by Units*, pp. 59 *ff.*, Chicago, 1933. See also Hollis L. Caswell and Doak S. Campbell, *Curriculum Development*, Chap. XV, New York, 1935.

moved westward, they used definite routes of travel and followed the lines of least resistance. They moved down certain river valleys because of the limestone soil; they sought other districts because of the hardwood timber; they avoided certain soils because the beech timber indicated a lack of fertility; and settlers and Indians fought over salt licks and mountain passes. Pupils are usually interested in such questions as the following: What were the geographical bases for the spread of immigrants? Why did railroads follow the routes that they did? Why is the Sault Sainte Marie (Soo) canal one of the busiest canals in the world? What was the geographical basis for the Populist party? Why did Iowa vote for McKinley in 1896 whereas Nebraska voted for Bryan? These questions constantly arise in the study of American history, and the only limit to their discussion is the knowledge and interest of the teacher. Geographic influences are of real importance and, if properly used, make for increased enthusiasm on the part of the pupils.

The Importance of Relating Contemporary Events to American History.—The teaching of American history should reemphasize the importance of contemporary events. It is practically impossible to teach a topic such as the currency problem without meeting with the inflationary movements during the colonial period, during the time of the Confederation, and during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. No one can read W. H. Harvey's *Coin's Financial School* without coming in constant contact with modern thinking. When one studies Jefferson's system for bringing economic pressure to bear on European belligerents, he is immediately reminded of the application of sanctions by the League of Nations. Certain trends and tendencies have a way of reappearing. History does not exactly repeat itself because of continual change, but past and present patterns are often similar and may differ only through the injection of a new issue into old patterns.

The Importance of Local History.—Whenever possible, the history of the community or locality should be considered. Few places in the country have not at some time or other been connected with important phases of national development. It may be that someone from the community has taken part in the larger affairs of the state or nation; an event of national importance may have taken place in the immediate vicinity; or a

historical collection of value can be reached easily; and if none of these things is possible, there is always historical information in the possession of someone in the neighborhood. This information may be important, or it may be trivial; but to the history teacher, it is significant and can furnish opportunities for showing pupils how to find and how to evaluate historical material. In addition to all this, it brings the community close to the school. It may be that the story of early transportation systems in the community is still to be written; it may be that important letters concerning past events can be brought to light. Excellent work is being done in many schools to make local history an important factor in the teaching of national history. In one instance, a high-school group wrote a history of an Ohio town;[7] in another, the study of state history played an important part as a point of departure for the study of national history.[8]

Textbook and Other Materials.—The question of textbooks and outside reading is an important one. It is advisable to have at least two general texts for class use. In addition to these, several books like C. A. Beard's *The Rise of American Civilization*, A. M. Schlesinger's *New Viewpoints in American History*, A. E. Martin's *History of the United States*, H. U. Faulkner's *American Economic History*, H. C. Hockett's *Political and Social Growth of the American People* and its companion volume by A. M. Schlesinger are valuable references. Books dealing with special phases of American development, such as P. I. Wellman's *The Trampling Herd* or E. B. Dick's *The Sodhouse Frontier*, are invaluable in stimulating interest. The use of reference reading frequently leads to the discovery of disagreements as to facts. This always furnishes an opportunity for a discussion of source material and its use in the writing of history. Good collections of documents and source material, such as H. S. Commager's *Documents of American History* and H. S. Commager and Allan Nevin's *The Heritage of America*, are valuable teaching aids.

In addition to books, the teacher of American history has access to rich sources in pamphlets. The *Public Affairs Pam-*

[7] ELEANOR I. SCHAPIRO, "Publishing a Local History," *Social Education*, 3 (January, 1939), pp. 25–29.

[8] WILLIAM J. PETERSEN, "The Use of Local History as a Tool in Studying American History," National Council for the Social Studies, *Ninth Yearbook* (1938), pp. 101–110.

phlets, which are accurately and carefully written, furnish an excellent basis for the study of important contemporary problems. Government documents are always valuable sources. Automobile clubs and railroads have interesting maps and pamphlets, and such government agencies as the Tennessee Valley Authority furnish descriptive literature. It should be realized that some of the material furnished by private sources may be propaganda, but this can be guarded against by a careful study of its source and content.

Books dealing with such problems as soil erosion, share-cropping, labor, the growth of cities, and education are being made available constantly for classroom use. This material is valuable not only in creating interest in modern problems but also in the establishment of perspective, which is an important factor in the teaching of history.

Biography.—Biographies are important as a part of the history teacher's equipment. There is still a great need for biographies that are adequate for secondary-school purposes. Adequacy in this case means being scholarly yet interesting, showing the evolution of character, presenting some description of environmental influences, and finally making no attempt to interpret human action on the basis of a single urge. Biography written to present a true picture according to the best information can be of great value. There are various ways in which the reading of biographical material can be made useful. It may be in the form of a written report; it may be presented in the form of an oral report to the class or to the teacher. In any case, it must never be permitted to become a routine affair. For this reason, an oral report to the teacher is usually a very successful way of presenting the material, because, in that case, a few significant questions will show how well the biography has been mastered. In a report on B. J. Hendrick's *The Lees of Virginia,* the pupil may be asked to point out the causes that are not found ordinarily in textbooks for the entrance of Virginia into the Revolution; the answer will show the extent to which the book has been mastered. In addition to this, it will indicate the pupil's ability to apply his outside reading to what has been studied in class. H. F. Pringle's *Theodore Roosevelt,* Allan Nevin's *Grover Cleveland,* Tyler Dennett's *John Hay,* and Bernard Faÿ's *George Washington* are very useful for this purpose. A helpful guide to American biography

is the work of F. H. Wilson and H. E. Wilson, *Bibliography of American Biography Selected and Annotated for Secondary Schools.* Invaluable in its estimate of American biographies is E. H. O'Neill's notable work *A History of American Biography.* The same author's *Biography by Americans*, 1658–1936, is an excellent subject bibliography.

Historical Fiction.—Historical fiction is useful, but again the teacher must know his material. A book like James Boyd's *Marching On* gives an excellent picture of certain phases of the Civil War. Walter D. Edmonds makes a valuable contribution to the understanding of a very important part of the Revolution in his *Drums along the Mohawk.* He has taken special pains to study historical sources to verify and to illustrate his conclusions. The teacher must be ever ready to correct misapprehensions or false conceptions, however, that arise from imaginative accounts. In the last named story, for instance, the author makes very real the terrific sufferings of the frontier people as a result of the Indian raids. He does not make clear the distinction between the characters Walter Butler and John Butler; neither does he point out that the ruthlessness of frontier warfare was regretted by enlightened leaders of both sides, including even the Butlers.

Frequently fiction can be used to stimulate historical reading. A boy who is interested in ships will devour the story, *Thomas Mason, Adventurer,* by Henry Pleasants and will probably also develop a desire to read further about the American Revolution. Two indispensable aids in evaluating historical fiction are Hannah Logasa's *Historical Fiction and Other Reading References for Classes in Junior and Senior High Schools* (Enlarged and Revised, 1941), and Jonathan Nield's *A Guide to the Best Historical Novels and Tales.* A helpful publication is *Bibliography: Historical Fiction, Biography, Drama, Books of Travel: In English, French, and German,* published in 1934 by the Lincoln School, New York.

Evaluation.—Evaluation is of basic importance because it influences the purposes, content, and methods of education. Some of the important characteristics of an evaluation program are that every such program must be based on the same philosophy as the teaching that is being tested, that it must appraise the significant outcomes that teachers are trying to attain, that it should give valid evidence on important changes taking place in students, that it should yield evidence that is not too heavily

biased by the personal judgment of one person, and that it should furnish evidence that can be used in formulating a helpful description of the student.[9]

Such a program will go much further than merely to test the mastery of information. It will also measure abilities, attitudes, methods of thinking, and techniques that make further learning possible. Much is still to be learned about the value of tests in determining general aptitude. There is a danger that teachers may take them too seriously. It is certain that tests as now arranged do not rate such traits as courage, will power, and determination or standards, habits, and ideals. Classroom teachers can testify to having had pupils of average ability who have done excellent work in school and college. They have also had pupils who have rated high in ability but whose achievement has been average or less than average. Such cases need careful study. A pupil of excellent ability who does poor work may be in a group that is not stimulating; he may be studying material that is too elementary for him; or he may find the teacher uninspiring. The value of a test in such instances is to call attention to a case that needs special consideration. A change of material or of course frequently results in better achievement.

There has been much discussion as to the relative merits of objective and essay-type tests. In American history, the objective test can be used by the teacher to review the mastery of facts at the end of long teaching units. Such tests can be worked out and evaluated and then used as timesavers, especially when the classes are large. When a unit on such a topic as the "Labor Problem" is completed, the teacher will want to test more than facts. He will want first of all to test the pupil's ability to write brief but significant summaries of such topics as the "Relation of the Supreme Court to Labor" or "Labor's Influence on Federal Legislation." Writing answers in précis form will indicate how well the student has mastered important phases of the topic.[10]

[9] Progressive Education Association, *The Social Studies in General Education*, Commission on Secondary School Curriculum, Chap. IX, New York, 1940. See also National Education Association, *Learning the Ways of Democracy: A Case Book of Civic Education*, Educational Policies Commission, Chap. VII.

[10] For criticism of the précis, see Progressive Education Association, *Language in General Education*, Commission on Secondary School Curriculum, pp. 190–191, New York, 1940.

Finally, a test of the pupil's ability to organize the material of the whole unit will require a longer essay-type test. In this, the teacher has an opportunity to see whether or not the pupil has a mastery of facts and trends as well as of underlying principles and relationships. It frequently happens that the pupil who ranks high on objective tests does not rate so well in the longer essay test. Many factors enter into this discrepancy. It may be caused by a failure on the part of the student to organize material as it is studied, or it may be due to a faulty method of teaching the relationship of ideas within the unit. Whatever the cause may be, it is important that the teacher should know it so that he can make provisions to remedy the difficulty.

It should be emphasized, finally, that a valid program of appraisement is not limited to the giving of examinations but involves the collection of any evidence that indicates the degree to which the objectives of the course are being attained. This, of course, would include the teacher's judgment, records of progress and anecdotal records kept by the pupil, and information from any other source.

Summary.—American history can be taught successfully when the teacher keeps in mind the fact that the United States is but a part of the world; that clearly defined objectives with an adequate testing program are necessary; that the arrangement of units is largely a question of the teacher's judgment, this to be based on the objectives that have been selected and upon the interests and needs of the pupils; that with a little thought and care, outside reading can be made both pleasant and profitable; that tests are valuable for measuring achievement and also for diagnostic purposes; and that there are many resources in communities upon which the teacher can draw. Furthermore, he must keep in mind the fact that scholarship is constantly adding to the information available, which makes for continual change in points of view. Since all material presented must be as accurate as possible, constant study on the part of the teacher is necessary.

American history is an important part of the curriculum. It is taught generally in the secondary schools of the country, usually in the seventh or eighth grades of the junior high school and in the eleventh though sometimes in the twelfth grade of the senior high school. To teach American history effectively

requires a careful selection of objectives which, in turn, determines the kind of material to be presented. Some of these objectives will be determined by the pupils to be taught and by the community in which the teaching is done.

Teaching the material in sequence with repetitions where necessary, gradations of subject matter according to maturity and ability levels, and the use of the rich resources furnished by American history will make the subject vital and interesting. Teachers have a vast reservoir of local history to draw upon in order to stimulate interest. The problem of gradation is still an unsolved one, although efforts are being made to study the general situation. Special care should be taken in the preparation of textbooks so that the terms used are comprehensible to the designated age levels.

The arrangement of the materials may be either topical or chronological. Many pupils prefer the latter because it gives them a greater sense of security. The topical method is used successfully, however, by a large number of teachers. Under some plans, these two arrangements may be combined. No definite plan of units can be recommended, because each teacher has to develop his own arrangement on the basis of his own particular situation. Care must be taken to integrate activities within the unit and to develop certain attitudes, habits, and ideals.

The use of geography makes the study of history more valuable. Certain basic facts in the geography of the United States should be presented in all American history courses, and the subject should be carried as far as the teacher's preparation and the time limit will permit.

The use of reference books is necessary because it gives the pupils an opportunity to make a more mature approach to the study of the subject. Other reference material such as carefully selected pamphlets and official documents are useful, especially when contemporary problems are under consideration. Well-selected biographies are valuable not only for stimulating interest but also for reference purposes. Historical fiction is valuable as an introduction to the more serious study of history.

Measurement of results is one of the important parts of any teaching activity. This implies adequate knowledge of the interests and abilities of students as well as many different kinds

of tests. Objective and essay-type tests are both important. The essay tests really do measure some abilities that are not measured by the objective test. In addition to these, techniques are being suggested for the evaluation of pupils' interests and attitudes, work habits and study skills, and such abilities as are involved in applying facts and principles to concrete situations. Although many of these newer evaluation techniques are in an experimental stage, they point in the direction of obtaining significant information concerning the achievement of established objectives.

Questions

1. Outline the objectives of a course in American history (*a*) in the junior high school, (*b*) in the senior high school.
2. Discuss the gradation of the materials of American history.
3. Show the different types of organization that may be used in courses in American history.
4. What tests should be applied to the selection of biographies suitable for the secondary-school level?
5. To what extent may historical fiction be used in a course in American history?
6. How can time relationships be made a significant part of the course in history?
7. Explain how geography may aid the teaching of American history.
8. To what extent should contemporary events be related to a course in American history?
9. Why is the teaching of local history important?
10. Show the difference between the essay-type test and objective test as instruments of evaluation in a course in American history.
11. How should you select and organize the materials for a course in American history designed for a low-ability group.
12. Work out a unit sequence for (*a*) the junior high school, (*b*) the senior high school.

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CHAPTER V

EUROPEAN HISTORY

European History in the Curriculum.—The importance of the study of European history is no longer a debatable question. The United States is a product of European expansion; cultural ties with some of the nations of Europe are very close; the economic relationships of the present are important; and the political connections cannot be ignored. In 1917, we were drawn into a war that originated from European rivalries. In more recent years, the question of war debts, trade relations, and our attitude toward changes that must inevitably come about on the European continent are all of great concern to us. For some time, we have been under the misapprehension that European problems could be kept out of this hemisphere, but the very close economic and political relationships between the Americas and Europe have caused us to reconsider this point of view. It is easy to view European conflicts emotionally, especially since great efforts are being made to propagandize us. One of the best antidotes for this propaganda is an understanding of such important European problems as national and international rivalries, the social and economic problems facing the people of that continent, and their outstanding cultural achievements. All these make the study of European history an important part of a social-studies curriculum.

The Influence of Reports of Committees on the Curriculum.—In the report of the influential Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association, it was recommended that medieval and modern European history from A.D. 800 on be taught in the tenth grade. The Committee of Five of the American Historical Association in 1910 suggested a course in modern European history covering the period from 1760 for the eleventh grade. This report was not so influential as that of the Committee of Seven but did note a trend toward an emphasis on the modern period. The report of the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National

Education Association in 1916 proposed a two-year course in European history, the first year covering the period to the end of the seventeenth century; and the second year, which was also to include English history, to cover the period since the seventeenth century. Since then a one-year survey of modern Europe has been offered rather generally by secondary schools all over the country.

At this point, it might also be noted that the "Recommendations of the Commission on History to the College Entrance Examination Board" include two years of European history.[1] The first year covers the period down to 1763, although there is disagreement as to when the ending date should be. The second year covering modern Europe would, under this plan, place its principal emphasis upon the nineteenth century.

The general plan by which pupils can offer modern European and American history in a two-unit sequence or modern European history, American history, and contemporary affairs in a three-unit series is commendable under present conditions, because it gives teachers of the social studies an opportunity to develop continuity in their teaching and to emphasize some of the larger relationships.

Problems of Organizing the Materials of European History.—Because of the material to be covered, the course in modern Europe presents real difficulties. The story of modern Europe is largely a story of the modern world, which means such a wealth of subject matter that definite selections must be made. It is not possible to find a single thread, as is the case in ancient history or in the history of the United States. If the subject of nationalism is taught, the story involves not only Germany and Italy but the various Balkan countries as well. Nationalism is associated with cultural, social, and economic problems and also with economic rivalries in which the various nations are involved in different ways. To study this one subject involves very careful organization of the materials of instruction which, in turn, depends upon a careful selection of objectives.

Objectives.—With the increasing emphasis on contemporary affairs, one of the first objectives should be to get an adequate

[1] CONYERS READ (Chairman), "Final Report and Recommendations of the Commission on History to the College Entrance Examination Board," *Social Studies*, 27 (December, 1936), pp. 546–561.

background for an understanding of modern problems. Another should be to learn how to investigate impartially all historical material and to render sound judgments on social and economic affairs. This ability for careful investigation is of special importance during periods of upheaval such as the First and Second World Wars when propaganda has played a great part. Another objective should be to secure an understanding of how nations act in their relations with one another—the causes of war and the attempts to make peace. Still another should be to obtain a mastery of a definite vocabulary, as, for example, *divine right, legitimacy, Third Republic, nationalism, imperialism,* and *coup d'état.* Along with this should go an understanding of such fundamental principles as that society and man are constantly changing and that men and nations are interdependent. It should be the purpose in teaching any field of history to inculcate historical-mindedness and critical-mindedness. An important objective, which can often be achieved with the cooperation of other departments, is to develop an appreciation for the great scientific, literary, and artistic contributions of European peoples. Finally, one of the important outcomes should be the creation of a permanent interest in reading about such an important subject as European history. Only a very small part of the story can be covered in a year's study, so an understanding of the new problems that are constantly arising will require an interest that goes much further than merely to pass the course. Objectives to be useful must be clearly formulated and must be a part of the working equipment of the teacher when he selects, organizes, and presents his material. The pupil, too, must understand these objectives clearly. This will make possible an adequate evaluation of the course.

Suggested Plans of Organization.—Because of its complexity, the organization of material is a difficult problem in a modern European history course. It is possible to organize the year's work on the basis of the story of the various important countries and larger areas such as the Balkans. That carries with it the possibility of bringing about much confusion in the pupil's mind, especially since it leads to some unnecessary repetition of material common to all the countries and areas. A study of Germany, for example, will include its industrialization, its national rivalries, its colonial expansion, and the attempts at democratization.

These movements are not confined, however, to any one country; hence the study of Italy, France, or Russia will bring up the same topics. A treatment of the larger topic, noting its special application to the various countries, will certainly simplify the course.

Another possible approach is to unify the study around certain larger themes such as nationalism, the development of democracy, imperialism, international relations, cultural developments, Fascism, and Communism. The units here enumerated provide for a long year's work, so it may be necessary to select them on the basis of the pupil's interests and ability and the regular time allotment. This organization is used by some very excellent texts and is less confusing than the approach through the study of nations and areas.

Another approach is that proposed by Frances Morehouse.[2] She lists the following units:

THE OLD WORLD IN MODERN TIMES

I. The Renaissance and its fruits: The old learning and the hand phase. The new learning and the machine phase. Discovery, Religious revolt and Reformation.

II. Political nationalism: Development after 1450. Conflicts—dynastic and religious wars.

III. The Economic Revolution: The machine multiplied knowledge and thus created a new ratio of directing and controlled people. It multiplied material wealth to the same end. Discovery extended economic frontiers and changed the old Direct and Local economy into a Long-distance economy, with unpredictable markets. Increased wealth brought capital and modern banking methods, modern labor problems, and a higher standard of living. Improvements in agriculture and invention changed agricultural and industrial production.

IV. The ferment of Liberalism: In Netherlands; Spanish struggles and establishment of modern liberal ideas. In England: 17th century struggle for parliamentary control; 18th century development of cabinet and responsible government. In France: the French Revolution and its sequel in Continental countries.

V. The nineteenth century—heyday of the nations. Development of philosophies destructive to national life on existing models. Nationalism weakens itself through imperialism.

[2] J. A. MICHENER (Ed.), *The Future of the Social Studies: Proposals for an Experimental Social Studies Curriculum*, p. 113.

VI. The twentieth century—the failure of nationalism. Nations, reaching their limit of power and overlapping claims, practicing a competitive economy which made poverty and discontent, break down the structure of law in the World War and its predatory aftermath.

This comprehensive series of units presents more material than can be covered in a year. They can, however, be used as the basis for a selection.

It is possible to make the units conform to such a pattern as that proposed by Marshall and Goetz in their *Curriculvm-making in the Social Studies: A Social Process Approach.*[3] Under this general plan, the six basic social problems included in this approach are: (1) the problem of adjustment to the external physical world; (2) the problem of biological conservation and reproduction; (3) the problem of transmitting and continuing the cultural inheritance; (4) the problem of enriching the individual life; (5) the guidance of human behavior and purpose by establishing, imposing, and protecting the standards of behavior; (6) the formation of groups as the inevitable medium for all social action. In using this plan, Part 1 would include such topics as geographical backgrounds, economic organizations such as trade unions, and political organization such as political parties and the state itself, also such topics as the Industrial Revolution and the problem of agriculture; Part 2 would include social-welfare legislation such as minimum-wage laws, child-labor laws, and wages and hours legislation, also religion; Part 3 would include commerce transportation and education; Part 6 would include the study of nationalism and internationalism. This organization may seem somewhat forced but is probably to be preferred to a general survey of all the nations of Europe.

Finally, a suggestive list has been proposed by C. A. Beard in his *The Nature of the Social Sciences.*[4] He divides his suggested organization into two parts. The Modern Age includes the following units: merging of all regions into one geographical and world setting through exploration, trade, and intercourse; European expansion in the New World; transformation of Asia

[3] L. C. Marshall and R. M. Goetz, *Curriculum-making in the Social Studies: A Social Process Approach*, American Historical Association, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, pp. 7–22, New York, 1936.

[4] C. A. Beard, *The Nature of the Social Sciences*, American Historical Association, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, pp. 218–221, New York, 1934.

and Africa (their old civilizations and cultures); extension of commerce; the Industrial Revolution and rise of capitalistic production; growth of the bourgeoisie, or middle classes (conflicts with monarch, aristocracy, and Church revolution far and wide); spread of parliamentary institutions; disruption of feudalism and relative decline of agriculture in economic scale; multiplication of scientific and secular interests; national unification movement (nationalism and self-determination of peoples as a climax); struggles for territories and trade empires and wars; appearance of leveling political democracy; consolidation of the working classes (trade unionism and socialism).

His second main division, entitled Contemporary Age, includes the following units: intensification of world intercommunication and imperial rivalries; the First World War as a world phenomenon; its shattering effect on the previous balance and order of world powers; efforts to stabilize the world (the League of Nations, the World Court, and regional agreements); Socialism (communism) as a theory and practical force (appearance in Russia, Germany, and England); revolutions and dictatorships (Italy, Germany, China, Spain, South America, Japan); the antithesis of capitalism and socialism and efforts to resolve the antagonisms by adjustment; the antithesis of world interdependence and national isolation and self-sufficiency; the merging of domestic and foreign politics. Because of time limitations, the emphasis should be on those units listed under Contemporary Age. The units included under Modern Age furnish important background material and can be used either in the form of lectures by the teacher or in the form of reports by students.

All the various plans of organization that have been presented here are purely suggestive. Each teacher will have to make such selections as are best adapted to the pupil group and also to the teacher's own interests and preparation. On the basis of these suggestions, it is frequently wise for the teacher to work out his own unit plan for the year. A sample outline of a unit is included here. This has been successfully used as a basis for teaching. It is presented merely as a guide for thinking.

The French Revolution

I. Background of the Revolution
  A. The intellectual revolution
    1. The eighteenth-century Rationalists

a. Basic influence of John Locke and the scientific revolution
b. Importance of
(1) Voltaire
(2) Montesquieu
(3) Rousseau
(4) Diderot

B. Economic conditions of France
1. The privileged social classes
2. Status of the peasants and laborers
3. Conditions of agriculture and industry
4. Financial breakdown of the monarchy
5. Unjust tax system

C. Political conditions
1. Inefficient administration
2. Defective judicial system
3. Weakness of the king
4. General dislike of the queen
5. Unwillingness of the privileged classes to give up their privileges

II. Beginning of the Revolution
A. Definition of the term "Revolution"
B. Why the Revolution began in France
C. Part played by the various groups
1. Court and privileged classes
2. Bourgeoisie
3. Proletariat
4. The peasants

III. Stages of the Revolution
A. Period of the Estates General
1. Reasons for its call
2. Important leaders
3. Transformation of the Estates General into the National Constituent Assembly
4. Destruction of the Bastille
5. Establishment of the Paris commune
6. Removal of the court to Paris
7. The Revolution becomes more radical

B. Period of the National Constituent Assembly
1. The August days reform

2. Declaration of the Rights of Man
3. Reform of the administration
4. Financial reform
5. Legislation regarding the church

C. Period of the legislative assembly

1. Opposition to the new French government
2. The radical clubs:
   Leaders
3. Foreign attacks
4. Political parties in the legislative assembly
5. Beginning of the war with Austria and Prussia

D. The National Convention

1. The August Revolution
2. End of the monarchy
3. Political parties in the Convention
4. Execution of the king and queen
5. Early military successes
6. The first coalition
7. Breaking up of the first coalition
8. The rule of the Committee of Safety
9. End of the Reign of Terror
10. Reforms brought about by the National Convention

E. The Directory

1. Constitution of the year III
2. Weaknesses of the Directory
3. Political and economic difficulties
4. Continuance of foreign wars
5. Rise of Napoleon into prominence: his military successes
6. Coup d'état

IV. Significance of the French Revolution

A. Its influence in Europe and the world

B. Modern interpretations of the Revolution

V. Questions

A. What were the relations between the English Revolution of 1688, the American Revolution of 1776, and the French Revolution of 1789?

B. How is the French Revolution different from the Fascist revolution in Italy and the Nazi revolution in Germany?

C. Explain the meaning of the following terms: *revolution, conservative, reactionary, radical, liberal.*

D. Show how the ideas that inspired the French Revolution had been the basis of reform movements before 1789.

E. In the light of the most recent changes in France, should you say that the influence of the French Revolution has been overestimated?

F. Be able to write a summary of the importance of the French Revolution in a paragraph of not more than one page in length.

Reevaluating the Materials of Modern History.—A very important series of articles may be found in *Social Education* for 1938 dealing with the reappraisement of the materials of modern history. Important are: Herbert Heaton, "The Industrial Revolution," *Social Education,* 2 (March, 1938), pp. 159–165; Eugene Anderson, "Nineteenth Century Europe, Liberal or Conservative?" *Social Education,* 2 (May, 1938), pp. 313–320; and Geoffrey Bruun, "The French Revolution: Reinterpretations," *Social Education,* 2 (November, 1938), pp. 531–535. Other interesting and valuable articles can be found in such professional magazines as *The Social Studies.* In view of the fact that modern scholarship is constantly adding new and important information and providing new interpretations which make it necessary to modify somewhat points of view that have been held for a long time, the teacher must keep in touch with the best sources of information regarding the findings of such research. The article by Geoffrey Bruun referred to above makes clear the fact that certain important forces in the French Revolution have not been adequately studied thus far and that when this is done, it may give a small clue to the Fascist revolutions of modern times.

Textbook and Other Materials.—The problem of selecting a text is a very real one, because many of the books have a tendency to overemphasize political and military events at the expense of social, economic, and cultural aspects of life. Some of the newer texts are beginning to remedy this situation.[5] There is, however, still a real need for more vital textbooks covering the modern period of European history. This implies books that include not

[5] ERLING HUNT, "Problems in the Teaching of Modern History," *Social Education,* 19 (November, 1937), pp. 552–557.

merely political but also social and cultural material; it implies books that include the new viewpoints brought out by recent scholarship; it implies the inclusion of a really interesting chapter on cultural life; it certainly means that such topics as Communism, Fascism, and cooperatives should be treated in an intelligent fashion and that some attempt should be made to touch upon contemporary problems.

The emphasis on contemporary affairs brings up the necessity for reading material other than that which is found in the text and reference books. Very useful in this field are the *Headline Books* and other publications of the Foreign Policy Association. The material published by this organization is always well written, interesting, timely, and scholarly. The *International Conciliation* pamphlets, published by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, are helpful. *The American Observer*, which discusses a modern world problem each week, furnishes excellent material for class discussion of important problems. The interest generated can easily be capitalized in stimulating a desire for further background study. *The Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* gives access to important current articles. Reference books that have been found useful are John Gunther's *Inside Europe*, Walter Duranty's *I Write as I Please*, W. H. Chamberlain's *Russia's Iron Age*, Maurice Hindus', *The Great Offensive*, Adolf Hitler's *Mein Kampf*, Vera M. Dean's *Europe in Retreat*, Raymond Leslie Buell's *International Relations*, C. J. H. Hayes's *Political and Cultural History of Europe*, W. Bowden, M. Karpovich, and A. P. Usher's *An Economic History of Europe since* 1750, Liddell Hart's *Through the Fog of War*, S. B. Fay's *The Origins of the World War*, and those published volumes of the series "The Rise of Modern Europe," edited by William L. Langer. The *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences* is invaluable for its scholarly and readable articles on various topics. For geographical study, J. F. Horrabin's *Atlas of Current Affairs* and C. S. Hammond and Company's *New Reference Atlas of the World* are useful. There is a great lack of biographical material suitable for the secondary-school field.[6]

Geography and European History.—It is difficult in a crowded year's work covering the history of modern Europe to give ade-

[6] Erling Hunt, "Problems in the Teaching of Modern History," *Social Education*, 19 (November, 1937), p. 556.

quate attention to geography. At the same time, the influences of geographic factors should constantly be in the mind of the teacher. In general, the student should know something about climatic zones, the distribution of land and water, the influence of mountains and rivers, and the important resources. He should know that geographic environment places limits on population, that it also influences occupations, political life, religious life, the interrelations of peoples, and manners and customs.

Specifically, it is interesting to know the comparative sizes as well as the populations of such countries as Belgium, Denmark, and Britain; it is necessary to know the five largest cities in Europe, with reasons for their size; and, in this connection, it is always worth while comparing these with the five largest cities of Asia and North America. The latitude and longitude locations of places are always helpful and important as a basis for comparing their locations. The use that can be made of geography depends entirely upon time and upon the teacher's own resources. In general, it can be said that:

> Geography gives the teacher special opportunities to help the future citizen, especially in his later school years, to build up what may become one of his most valuable possessions, a vision of the world in which he will work to live and in which other men in other circumstances also work to live, with methods and aims different from his own, but worthy of respectful study and appreciation so long as the aggressive spirit in political and economic matters is kept under control and men's faces are set toward a goal of concord in liberty, . . ."[7]

Stimulating Interest.—The problem of stimulating interest is a vital one and should receive attention. A part of the material in such a course is remote from the experiences of the pupils. It is, therefore, necessary to begin with the familiar. The problem is frequently solved by the interest in contemporary affairs. A class can start the year's work by attempting to write a peace treaty that might be used at the end of the Second World War. This should be carried out as a cooperative enterprise in which the class divides itself into committees to write the various articles of the treaty. Two things will result from such a project: (1) an interest in the general story of Europe; and (2) a realization that their knowledge is inadequate. That makes an excellent point

[7] *Education for Citizenship in the Secondary Schools,* p. 80, London, 1935.

for a cooperative teacher- and student-planned course. Much more important than a continent at war will be a continent trying to reorganize itself after a disastrous struggle. This undertaking will present many matters of current interest which can readily be used as a starting point for the year's work.

The many parallels between the history of Europe and the United States make another interesting beginning point. How this relationship can be used to stimulate interest has been mentioned in the chapter on American history. It should form an important part of a European history course to show how democratic movements in Europe paralleled those in the United States, how free-trade movements in Europe occurred about the same time as the lower tariff tendencies in this country, and how even the garish displays of the gilded age had their European counterparts.

Problems of Gradation.—The importance of an understanding of a pupil's general and reading abilities has already been mentioned in Chapter IV on American history and Chapter II on guidance. Various methods can be used for dealing with the problem of the slow student. As already stated, arousing interest is one of the foremost problems that faces the teacher in any class. Some teachers prefer the maximum and minimum assignment which makes it possible for the slow student to achieve some degree of success, a fact that is very important. One danger should be pointed out in connection with this method. It can happen that the material presented for the slower pupil is merely a boiled-down version of material adapted for the higher ability levels. The less able pupil will not get the most out of this material. Concern should be felt lest he get the notion that he is getting something for nothing. A skillful teacher who knows his pupils can, however, use this method successfully.

It should be remembered, as Henry Johnson has pointed out, that on the elementary level, history and the social studies are narrative and descriptive.[8] They deal with real people and real things. More mature pupils should be taught analysis and generalizations in so far as they can understand them. Basically, all pupils must master the concrete before they can understand the abstract.

[8] Henry Johnson, *Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools with Applications to Allied Studies,* Chap. IV, New York, 1940.

Wise teachers frequently see the necessity for an entirely different type of material to be presented to slower pupils. The start in this case must be with the pupil's abilities, needs, interests, and limitations. This will determine how the material is to be organized and presented so that the class may achieve significant success in the mastery of the work. Some teachers are doing distinguished work in this field.[9]

Evaluation.—The evaluation program in this, as in every other course, depends largely upon the objectives that have been selected. Furthermore, the teacher must know all that can possibly be found out about the pupil's abilities, his previous training, his home environment, and his general attitudes. The value of objective and essay tests has been discussed. Tests may be used in the following sequence. First, objective tests should be given for factual material and time relationships. After a unit has been studied, this type of test gives the teacher an opportunity to see how all the facts have been mastered, how the vocabulary is understood, and whether or not the pupil has a proper sense of time relationships. After this test has been given, the teacher can determine what material will have to be retaught. Short essay tests are useful to evaluate the pupil's ability to organize in a brief and accurate fashion summaries of less important topics and to make significant identifications of important men and events. The longer essay test is adapted to evaluating the pupil's ability to see relationships and also to test his ability to organize longer units in a clear and logical fashion. Writing will help to make an exact man, for which reason the essay test can ever be a valuable aid to the teacher. One word of warning should be given here. The essay test has fallen into ill repute in some circles because of the type of questions asked. Naturally, when such a test requires merely the exercise of memory, it loses much of its value. An essay test, to be valid, requires much care in its construction so that it will test not only the student's memory but also his ability to think about what he has learned and to put the results of this thinking into interesting written form. All other aspects of evaluation, previously mentioned, must be considered to round out the program.

[9] Ada Lefkowith, "An English Teacher Tackles Modern European History with Low I. Q.'s," *Social Education*, 2 (December, 1938), pp. 635–641.

Summary.—European history is becoming an increasingly important part of the curriculum because of the close relationship between European and world problems. In teaching this subject, care must be taken in the selection of objectives, because this selection will determine to a very large extent the materials of the course.

The choice of textbooks and reference materials is of the greatest importance. Although the textbook list is somewhat limited in extent, there has been considerable improvement in the quality of these books recently. Adequate source material is being made available. There is a wide range of reference books from which the resourceful teacher can choose material to stimulate interest in the work. As much attention should be paid to geography as time and the teacher's knowledge of the subject will permit.

Many types of organization have been tried. The one plan being used most generally is the unification of the materials of the course around certain large topics such as "Nationalism," "Imperialism," "Democracy," and "International Relations." The organization depends upon the interests and abilities of the pupils as well as upon the preparation of the teacher.

It is necessary to study carefully the pupils who are taking the course in order to enable the teacher to present material within the range of the ability of those taught. Such an understanding makes it possible to prevent discouragement on the part of the slower pupil, at the same time giving the more able pupils plenty of opportunity to advance as rapidly as their ability will permit.

The evaluation program is important because no material or method has validity until the outcomes have been tested. A great many different tests should be used, and it should be clear to the teacher just what each kind of test should evaluate.

Finally it should be emphasized that no matter how definite the objectives or how excellent the material or how well chosen the instruments of evaluation, all will be useless unless administered by a wise teacher.

Questions

1. Why is there an increased interest in the teaching of European history?
2. What are some of the difficulties faced in organizing this course?
3. List eight units that you would consider essential for a year's work in European history, with reasons for your selection.
4. Make an essential vocabulary list for this course.

5. What is the nature of the material to be presented to a group of the less able pupils?

6. Make a list of five questions designed to test the pupil's ability to organize material in such topics as "Nationalism," "Imperialism," and "Growth of the Labor Movement."

7. How should you relate the history of Europe to that of the United States?

8. In what way can contemporary affairs be used to stimulate an interest in the history of Europe?

9. How can a study of geography be related to the teaching of European history?

10. What important things should a teacher know about his pupils when he begins a course in European history?

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CHAPTER VI

WORLD HISTORY

The Importance of World History as a School Subject.—Throughout the ages, men have been continually challenged by the idea of a world community. Hugo Grotius began the organization of a system of international law; William Penn envisaged the time when nations should live cooperatively; and Immanuel Kant advocated a democratically controlled world state. In more recent years, F. S. Marvin has set forth the growing unity of civilization in his book *The Living Past.* Men like H. G. Wells have pointed out the necessity for the development of a cooperative way of living if the civilization of the present is to survive. Not to be forgotten also are the unexpressed hopes and the prayers of millions of sufferers to whom war brings agony and disaster.

Actually the world is learning the value of cooperation in spite of the tribal arrogance of the present moment. The International Labor Office, the International Postal Union, the International Organization for Intellectual Cooperation, the Committee on Traffic in Opium and Other Drugs, and the International Red Cross are a few of the organizations that are bringing the world much closer together by their daily activities. The League of Nations, in spite of its apparent failure, can be credited as a step toward cooperation; the Pan-American Union is laying the basis for a peaceful western world; and the British Commonwealth of Nations is another demonstration of the value of cooperative living. Because of this continuing development, it is interesting to consider what the schools have done in teaching a world outlook.

The Place of World History in the Curriculum.—World history in the form of general history occupied a place in the curriculum a half century ago, usually in the tenth grade. The emphasis at that time was chiefly upon political, dynastic, and military affairs. The student was crammed with facts in the hope that

the result would be the attainment of culture and some mental discipline.

The latter objective has left history with the unsavory reputation of being the subject that requires endless memorization of useless facts. Even though this criticism was true in the past, the effect today is to make some people doubt that it is necessary to master any facts whatsoever.

It can readily be seen that such a method of presenting general history could not maintain itself in the face of progressive thinking. Although it continued to be offered in some schools, it gradually lost ground after 1900 to the more specialized fields such as ancient history and modern European history which were being offered to fulfill college-entrance requirements.[1] The First World War and postwar problems brought about a revival of interest in world history; and, as a result, various experiments for teaching such a course were tried in different schools.

World History in the Elementary School.—In the elementary schools the material is now being presented over a series of years to show the evolution of modern culture. It is also being taught as a group of units adapted to the interest and experience of the pupils. In some schools, units are organized showing the development of certain important activities such as transportation, architecture, music, and writing. In other schools world-history courses are sometimes taught as a series of fusion units incorporating history, geography, and civics.

One of the chief problems involved in the teaching of the social studies in the elementary grades is that of adapting the ideas presented to the age level and the needs of the child.[2] A very valuable list of concepts to be taught at the elementary school level is the one prepared by the National Council of Teachers of English as a basis for the correlated work between English and the social studies.[3] The list includes:

1. The enormous age of human culture (especially of the prehistoric life of mankind) and the extreme recency of most

[1] ALICE N. GIBBONS, "World History in the Social Studies Program," National Council for Social Studies, *Sixth Yearbook* (1936), pp. 50–67.

[2] J. MURRAY LEE and DORIS MAY LEE, *The Child and His Curriculum*, Chap. IX, New York, 1940.

[3] RUTH MARY WEEKS (Chairman), *A Correlated Curriculum*, The National Council of Teachers of English, p. 15, New York, 1936.

things—railroads, telegraphy, telephones, automobiles—that are conspicuous in our civilization.

2. The unity of man with the rest of living nature and his subjection to the same fundamental laws.

3. The concept of change, involving the idea of progress, and especially of the progressive humanization of man.

4. The unity and continuity of cultural evolution.

5. Man's machinery—that is, his body and organs.

6. The essentials of man's heredity.

7. The fact that all races and peoples have some culture of their own and that many excel in particular arts and activities.

8. The need, therefore, for a sympathetic consideration of alien groups.

9. The history of the foundations of various nations, particularly those of the white race.

10. The composition and anthropological development of the American people.

11. The idea of history as presenting what Hegel calls the ultimate design of the world.

12. The relation of great personalities to the total social situation of their respective ages.

13. The concept of contingencies and choices that have been, might have been, and may now be made.

14. The causes for economic conflict.

15. The encouragement of scientific method in social affairs, and the value of analysis and statistical measurements in studying social culture and social change.

These concepts are most effectively measured by the use of appropriate skills.[4] Some of those suggested are learning to use libraries, to make maps and charts, and to organize social-studies material.

Attitudes, such as the attitude of inquiry, of creative self-expression, of critical-mindedness, should naturally grow out of good teaching. The Virginia State Board of Education Course of Study includes a list of twenty-six such important attitudes to be inculcated on the elementary-school level.[5]

[4] C. A. Beard, *The Nature of the Social Sciences*, p. 227.

[5] Virginia State Board of Education, *Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools*, Grades I–VII, pp. 3–7, Richmond, 1934.

It is not the individual techniques but the combined result of such techniques that is primarily important. This is true of work on the elementary-school level as well as that of the secondary school. J. Murray Lee and Doris May Lee make this clear in their study of *The Child and His Curriculum:*

> Learning is not merely a mathematical summation of knowledges, understandings, techniques, and attitudes. It is a unity and blending, a growth and development. Attitudes are the instigators of these elements and driving forces to action. Mere knowledge is not sufficient. It will not necessarily lead to understanding and action. The changing concept of the purpose of social studies from "knowledge concerning the past" to "more effectively meeting situations involving social relationships" has forced into the spotlight the means of attaining these purposes. The mastery of facts offers little when contrasted with the development of understandings, attitudes and techniques.[6]

World History in the Secondary School.—In the secondary school, the tendency seems to be toward a one-year course to be given in the tenth grade, although in this case, again, there is no uniform approach. Some schools offering two years of world history require one and make the second optional; others require two years of history for noncollege students, one of these to be world history. In a few cases, the course is presented in the twelfth grade as a final general survey of civilization. Much is to be said for this plan. Some educational thinkers would eliminate separate courses in American history and thus make possible a two-year study of the development of civilization.[7] The University of Chicago High School is presenting such a survey with considerable success. A committee of sociologists has recommended a tenth-grade course in world history presented from the sociological point of view,[8] in which many constitutional, military, and political details would be eliminated; in their stead would be presented the story of the development of institutions and ideals to show the bases for modern life. Although the material that would be presented seems to be more suitable for

[6] J. Murray Lee and Doris May Lee, *The Child and His Curriculum*, p. 297, New York, 1940.

[7] Edgar Dawson and Others, *Teaching the Social Studies*, p. 285, New York, 1927.

[8] R. L. Finney, "Courses in General History from the Sociologists' Standpoint," *Historical Outlook*, 11 (June, 1920), pp. 221–227.

students of the twelfth than of the tenth grade, something is to be said for this point of view.

The Experiments of the Progressive Education Association.—One of the most promising experiments in the presentation of world history is that which has been carried on under the auspices of the Progressive Education Association. Most of the schools devoted three years to the social studies. This gave an opportunity to teach the leading phases of human development not necessarily in chronological order but as they relate themselves to modern problems, institutions, ideas, and ideals. The value of this experiment lies in the fact that it is leading to a restudy of the material usually presented at the secondary-school level and that it will produce a series of tests that will rate not only the pupil's mastery of information but also significant attitudes and thought processes. The rating of attitudes is important because glib and clever statements too frequently cover much careless thinking. Furthermore, students may rank very high in their ability to master information but may be very inconsistent in their thinking on modern problems. This inconsistency of thought is not always confined to the student body but is too frequently found outside the school.

It cannot be said too often that there is great danger in making the course in world history too general and of using it as a credit subject rather than as an opportunity for the study of the world as a community. If it is used merely to obtain credits, it will present the same difficulties as did the old general-history course.

Objectives.—Objectives must vary with different age and ability levels. This is basic in the consideration of any world-history course. In this chapter, we are dealing with the senior-high-school level and shall consider some of the objectives to be emphasized at this stage. As has already been said in Chapter IV on American history, it is important in any history course that the objectives be specific rather than general. Training in world-mindedness, one of the most important objectives in a world-history course, must include a toleration of ideas, even if these ideas are indefensible, and must develop a desire to see how world cooperation can be assured. This leads not only into the problem of justice between nations but also into that of justice between races and classes. Critical-mindedness must bring about an understanding of the subtle ways in which ideas are insinuated

into the thoughts of the unsuspecting. A further outcome of the study of world history is the attainment of perspective; this is a valuable asset in an age noted for its inability to take the long view of events and happenings. Other objectives might be listed; one of them, too important not to be mentioned, is the development of a sensitivity to the problems of society as well as a continuing interest in their solution. This applies especially to those students who, for various reasons, cannot continue with their college education. Frequently the job of making a living becomes rather strenuous, and there is a tendency to drift into routine habits of thinking. The following statement was made by a student several years after she had taken a twelfth-grade course in world history in which the development of ideas and institutions was emphasized. It was written after she had listened to Everett Dean Martin whose books she had keenly enjoyed during her student days: "He talked chiefly about political science, its origins and our destiny. . . . His background, of course, is marvellous. But when he talked of Karl Marx, John Stuart Mill, Plato, Erasmus, Montaigne, Bacon, and Cicero, I felt superior though I know only a little history and less philosophy." In this instance, the young woman still felt a keen pleasure because of the contact with ideas that her work in school has given her.

In addition to this, certain important concepts such as the necessity of making the scientific approach to all problems and the fact that the social order is constantly changing are valuable to anyone living in modern times. Any student who understands the nature of change and who is aware of the constant tendency of institutions to lag behind ideas is equipped in a measure to meet the tensions of modern times.

Unit Organization.—After the formulation of clearly defined and usable objectives, the next problem is that of unit organization and arrangement. Unit arrangement in a world-history course varies with the approach that the teacher selects. A convenient approach is the chronological one, which divides the material into larger topics such as "The Orient," "Greece in the Fifth Century," "Rome," and "Medieval Institutions." Since this extensive field cannot be covered thoroughly in one year, there will have to be some kind of emphasis depending upon the interest and ability of the class and also on whether the students

are generally preparing for college or most of them are completing their formal education with the secondary school. In either case, however, it will be necessary to show trends of civilization rather than to master numerous facts regarding the various units studied. The following list of units, suggested by R. O. Hughes, may be used as a basis for the selection of material for a world-history course:

1. Foundations and backgrounds: what history is and how we get it; the place of geography in history; man before history.
2. The beginnings of our civilization: Egypt and the Near East.
3. Gifts of Greece to the modern world.
4. How Rome forwarded civilization.
5. How people lived in the Middle Ages.
6. Trials and triumphs of the Christian church.
7. The beginnings of modern nations.
8. The awakening of Western Europe.
9. Divisions and wars among Christians.
10. Monarchs and monarchies of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.
11. The opening of new lands for trade and freedom.
12. How the French Revolution and Napoleon changed Europe and the world.
13. New nations and a new nationalism.
14. A new industrial and social order.
15. The world-wide advance of European civilization.
16. The great catastrophe.
17. Rebuilding civilization.[9]

Time Relationships.—Ten years' experience in teaching a course in world history in the eleventh and twelfth grades has convinced the writers that some effort must be made to give pupils a sense of time relationships. A device that has been found helpful is the making of a chronological chart with summaries of trends at the end of important periods. The following was worked out by one of the pupils in a world-history course as an independent project without any particular help from the teacher beyond a few suggestions as to the arrangement of material. In this case, the pupil who made the outline was enthusiastic,

[9] J. A. Michener (Ed.), *The Future of the Social Studies: Proposals for an Experimental Social Studies Curriculum*, p. 54.

because he felt that he had a clearer sense of time relationships and an increased ability to associate events with the more important periods of human progress.

THE MIDDLE AGES

1000. Arabic numerals brought to Europe by Moors. Europe adopted Moslem culture—mathematics and science, algebraic notation, geometry, trigonometry, and knowledge of paper making—all of which the Moslems had absorbed in their contact with Greek civilization
1000. Mariner's compass introduced into Europe from China
1066. The Norman conquest—William the Conqueror
Conflict of Church and State
King Henry IV (1056–1106) vs. Pope Gregory VII
1073–1085. Pope Gregory humbles Henry IV and establishes the supremacy of the papacy over the king
1070–1142. Pierre Abélard, brilliant monk, theologian, and philosopher—he influenced the development of scholasticism
1100–1300. The Crusades—the Mediterranean becomes the center of trade
1140. Movable type invented in China
1154–1189. Henry II initiated trial by jury
1187. Saladin captured Jerusalem
1189. Third Crusade—Frederick I, Philip II, and Richard I
1200. The peak of feudal Europe
1204. Fourth Crusade—Pope Innocent III
Many Gothic churches built at this time
Universities flourished; Paris (theology); Salerno (medicine); Bologna (law); and Oxford
1215. Magna Charta—King John—First step from monarchy to democracy and toward the abolition of divine right in England
1182–1226. St. Francis of Assisi established the Franciscan order
1254. English Parliament—medieval estates met on a national scale
1214–1294. Roger Bacon, scholar, inductive method of thinking
1225–1274. St. Thomas Aquinas the greatest influence on medieval Christianity; a great scholastic
1271–1295. Marco Polo, explorer. Revived interest in the Orient

1291. Fall of Acre, the last Christian stronghold in Palestine
1295. Estates General in France, Parliament in England

Some General Trends

1. Beginning of the decline of feudalism and the rise of national monarchies.
2. Growth of towns and rise of extensive commerce and industry.
3. Hanseatic League among the Baltic cities.
4. Merchant and craft guilds.
5. Agriculture supreme.
6. Church domination—domination of historical Christianity.

This material is only a part of an outline covering about sixteen typewritten pages.

Supplementary Reading.—Outside reading, which is sometimes a serious problem, can be taken care of effectively if it furnishes pupils with an opportunity for further exploration in the field of their special interest. One group of pupils who were permitted to select readings to suit their individual taste chose books dealing entirely with modern world problems or with modern American problems. The pupils who were interested in Russia found *Russia's Iron Age*, by W. H. Chamberlain, and *The Great Offensive*, by Maurice Hindus, valuable. Those who wished to add to their information regarding dictators chose their reading from a list of books containing such titles as *Deliver Us from Dictators*, by R. C. Brooks; *Sawdust Caesar* by George Seldes; *Mein Kampf*, by Adolf Hitler; and *It Can't Happen Here*, by Sinclair Lewis. Books like Ernest Poole's *The Harbor*, Katherine Glover's *America Begins Again*, Stuart Chase's *The Tragedy of Waste*, and Upton Sinclair's *The Jungle* were selected by students with a highly developed interest in American social and economic problems. As a result of their interest, some of these pupils studied book reviews and recommended for library purchase books dealing with their field of interest.

Reports on these books were made orally to the class or orally to the teacher. If the report was made to the class, a discussion usually followed in which the speaker had to be ready to answer such questions as the members of the class might ask. A book like Beverley Nichols' *Cry Havoc* raised enlightening discussions, because frequently there was honest disagreement as to its value.

In some cases, pupils wished to carry their reports much further than a mere oral presentation. Two boys who had made a study of Harold Gray's *Character Bad* became much concerned about the general school sentiment with regard to war. They organized a school poll to determine the attitude of the student body. Before doing so, they made a brief study of college polls that had been taken and were fully aware of the limitations of these expressions of sentiment. In bringing the questions before the whole group, they made use of the school paper and also stimulated the organization of informal discussion groups. The final step in the whole project, which was carried off in a very business-like fashion, was the presentation of a written report incorporating the results of the experiment.

A quotation from one of the reports will give some idea of the undertaking:

> Owing to our curiosity we decided to conduct a war ballot to ascertain the opinion of the entire school. The ballot was conducted along the same line as those which were carried out in many schools. . . . We chose three main questions since we knew that the student body would not bother to fill out a lengthy questionnaire. . . .
>
> The next step was to create an interest in the student body and to give a clear understanding of the meaning of each question so they might have a chance to prepare themselves through discussion and serious thought as to what stand they would take. The best way to do this would have been through speakers and elaborately organized discussion groups. Time compelled us to limit it to an article in the school paper and to such informal discussion groups as we were able to organize.

The report showed two things very definitely: one of the boys had become more convinced in his antiwar attitude; the other had learned a great deal about how people act in crowds. In addition to this, both had obtained valuable experience in actual participation in the affairs of a social group.

The possibilities in guiding supplementary reading are as broad as the ability of the teacher to stimulate the interest of the pupil. Other groups, if given the same freedom of choice, might prefer to read about fifth century Greece, the Reformation, the Renaissance, or the eighteenth century.

The Use of Geography in World History.—Since it is essential that students should know the significant geographic forces that influence men, world history cannot be taught without including

geography. Climate, topography, and resources are a few of the factors that are constantly acting as modifying agencies in human development. The location of the French settlements in America was largely due to the fact that the French first sailed up the St. Lawrence River. It is also notable that Spanish cultural influences in the South and Southwest are due very largely to the early explorations of that national group which radiated from their possessions in the Caribbean. The shifting of the commercial centers from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic was a matter of extreme importance to the history of the world. The search for outlets to the sea has shaped the history of many nations. The lack of certain essential raw materials has made nations militaristic. Admiral Mahan wrote to demonstrate the fact that sea power has been a vital factor in the growth and decline of nations. One might go on to name many more important relationships of geography to the political, economic, and social development of nations. The consideration of such topics illustrating the force of geographical and environmental influences upon the making of nations and the shaping of cultures proves of continuing interest to the pupils and makes clear many of the otherwise puzzling aspects of world history.

Textbook and Other Materials.—The problem of textbooks is a major one; for the older books emphasizing military, political, and dynastic details have become inadequate for any survey of cultural developments. Some texts, in themselves excellent for their original purposes, do not when rewritten fulfill the requirements for world-history courses. The necessity for condensation of the material leaves either a bare and uninteresting outline or, what is equally bad, a series of general statements that are vague and unintelligible to the high-school pupil with his limited experiences.[10]

H. G. Wells's *Outline of History*, Geoffrey Parsons' *The Stream of History*, J. H. Robinson's *The Human Adventure*, and Hendrik Van Loon's *The Story of Mankind* point in the right direction. Lynn Thorndike's *A Short History of Civilization* is excellent but too difficult for secondary schools. A book that is useful because of its excellent organization and workable vocabulary is J. E. Swain's *A History of World Civilization*. The syllabuses prepared

[10] F. C. LANDSITTEL, "How General and Vague Are World Histories?" *Social Education*, 3 (November, 1939), pp. 547–550.

by the faculty of the University of Chicago have much excellent material and should be in the possession of every teacher who attempts to present a world-history course. A text suitable for the secondary school must lay emphasis on cultural developments, must have a vocabulary adapted to the secondary-school level, must present a realistic picture, and must tell the story of human progress as a unified experience.

Suggested Plans for Presenting World History.—Certain plans that have been found useful are mentioned here for whatever value they may have to the teacher who is planning a world-history course for the first time or who is seeking suggestions for the reorganization of such a course. Although some of the material may seem difficult for the tenth-grade level, adaptations can be made that may make it available. One of the important things in presenting such a course is the cooperation of other departments. This is valuable as a means for reemphasizing ideas and concepts. In a private school, when oriental civilizations were studied, the teacher of religion discussed the importance of the prophet Jeremiah; when the Roman period was reached, the Latin teacher presented the story of Cicero as a philosopher; and the music teacher took time to make clear the creative efforts of the various schools of music—classic, romantic, and modern. The possibilities of such cooperative teaching are unlimited; and wherever used, it makes for the enrichment of the work. A further discussion of this subject will be found in the chapter on correlation and fusion.

As has already been stated, certain fundamental concepts should be emphasized. The character and number of these may vary with the composition of the group taking the course. A class composed of the less able students may confine its study to the more modern problems without any extensive exploration of their historical bases. A more able group can see the continuity of ideas and can thus do more thinking with regard to the trends of civilization. Such students can also master abstract ideas more readily.

When studying primitive civilization, the pupil becomes aware of the tremendous progress that man made before he began to write. He is impressed by the fact that the development of civilization has been a gradual process. He notes that primitive ideas have influenced modern thought; he sees, for instance, that

modern science, as well as modern superstition, has its basis in primitive magic; he is impressed by the fact that many primitive customs have been handed down; and, finally, he notes that a number of misbeliefs are still prevalent. When a Wall Street broker consults a numerologist, there is, for instance, considerable evidence that primitive superstition still survives. An additional value that comes from the study of primitive society is an understanding of the unity and simplicity of early cultures. Even though there was simplicity, there are important economic, industrial, artistic, and religious activities that can be studied in such a fashion as to present a much more complete picture than is gained from a survey of modern culture. The importance of early industry, art, language, and religion, for example, makes an interesting and significant topic for study.

Oriental cultures may be taught as a single unit with the definite purpose of presenting their important contributions to civilization. In a year's course, it is inadvisable to try to distinguish between the various empires of the Nile and the Tigris-Euphrates valleys. To do so would only lead to confusion. It is possible to trace the development of certain important ideas that not only influenced the Orient but also have continued to influence men and nations since then. The development of the authoritarian state is an interesting topic which has certain modern implications; the progress of handicrafts, the origin of monotheism, the earliest pleas for social justice, the first steps in imperialism, the growth of art are only a few of the topics that must be dealt with in a study of what has seemed to many a rather uninteresting field or a general-survey course.

The unit dealing with Greek culture is always stimulating, because here we have a people who were original and creative. Their willingness to break away from authority and their confidence in human reason need to be reemphasized in an age that is rapidly becoming anti-intellectual. These people wrestled with many problems familiar to modern times. In teaching this unit, the emphasis should be put on the fifth century B.C. The progress of the civilization from the Orient on through the early Greek period may be covered by an overview which can be done very effectively by means of a lecture. It is also frequently advisable for the teacher to give brief surveys in the form of a lecture. This will enable the pupils to spend more time on the

important periods. During the presentation of the fifth century story of Greece, for instance, special reports can be assigned on topics of interest. Such topics as "A Comparison of Athenian with Modern Democracy," "The Importance of Athletics," "Dancing as Developed by the Greeks" will stimulate considerable research effort and will furnish occasions for worth-while discussions.

The weaknesses and inconsistencies of Greek life should also be presented. These people did tolerate slavery; they looked upon work as undignified; they were parties to cruelty and exploitation; and they were often gullible and superstitious. This is not "debunking" but merely presenting a complete picture.

Roman civilization, when considered in terms of law and organization, seems very near. That the foundation of our legal system was begun in Roman law is self-evident. In addition to this, the Romans were also capable organizers. Though in the field of medicine they added very little to the leading ideas then predominant, they did learn a great deal about hospitals and sanitary measures. Another example of their organizing ability is the development of facilities for keeping their cities supplied with fresh water. Students can readily see the similarity between the Roman ability for organization and a similar trait in the United States today.

If a unit on the medieval age is desired, it may be treated topically. Although there is a tendency to slight this important epoch in human progress, the development of the church, the spread of Arabian civilization, the growth of universities, the Crusades, the artistic and architectural achievements of this period are noteworthy and make excellent materials for study.

For the modern period, there is a choice between arranging units chronologically or placing the emphasis on modern problems. The chronological plan would include the Renaissance, the great political revolutions, the Industrial Revolution, and the rise of nationalism. If the emphasis is on modern problems, the units will be organized around such topics as "The Development of International Law," "The Growth of Imperialism," "World Organization for International Peace," "The Evolution of Democracy, Fascism, and Communism," "The Status of Tolerance," and, finally, "The Problem of Race." Studies of this kind are neither too broad nor too superficial for the second-

ary-school pupil. If he is really interested, he can achieve a considerable mastery of these vital problems.

Unit Outlines.—There is no outline that will fit the plans of every teacher. The following covering primitive, Oriental, and Greek periods is merely suggestive:

I. Primitive culture
  A. Brief survey of the geologic ages
  B. The biologic, geographic, and social factors in culture
  C. Primitive customs and thought
    1. The importance of magic, totemism, animism, and taboo
    2. Modern survivals of primitive culture
II. The Orient
  A. Geographic factors
    1. River valleys, soil, climate, the fertile crescent
  B. Economic factors
    1. Natural resources, labor, transportation
  C. Racial factors
    1. Important racial groups inhabiting the Orient
    2. Race factors in Oriental controversies and progress
  D. Political influences
    1. The authoritarian state
    2. The earliest law codes
    3. The imperial idea
    4. Close association of religion and the state
  E. Religion
    1. The importance of religious factors
    2. The development of monotheism
    3. Mithraism, Judaism, Christianity, Mohammedanism
  F. The arts and sciences
    1. Art and architecture in the Nile and Tigris-Euphrates valleys
    2. Science—the inclined plane, the pulley, the lever
    3. Astronomy
    4. Medicine
    5. The calendar
    6. Chemistry
  G. Vocabulary
    The student should make a careful list of vocabulary terms which should be checked by the teacher.

III. Greece
- *A*. A brief survey of the progress of civilization to the fifth century B. C.
- *B*. Fifth century Greece
  1. Geographical influences
  2. Racial factors
  3. The character of the Greek mind
  4. Philosophy
  5. Art
  6. Architecture
  7. Science
  8. Literature
  9. Religion
  10. Athletics
  11. Democracy
  12. Important Greek leaders of thought
  13. Greek contributions to civilization
  14. Why the Greeks failed to make the largest possible contribution to civilization

In addition to the suggested reports that have already been mentioned, the examination should give students an opportunity to organize in a significant fashion material that they have gone over. The review test should evaluate not only memory but also understanding. At the end of the Greek period, for example, the following questions might be asked:

1. Make up a Greek Hall of Fame, giving reasons for your selections.
2. The University of Wisconsin Experimental College in its two-year course spent the first year studying fifth century Greece. Why was this period chosen? What period should you suggest for the second year? Give reasons for your choice.
3. List as many descriptive words as possible to characterize the Greeks and their contribution to civilization.
4. Account for the fact that the Greeks made so many original contributions to civilization.
5. Explain the causes for the failure of the Greeks to continue their preeminence.
6. (A question testing the mastery of vocabulary should be given.)

Evaluation.—Different teachers will devise their own particular questions. The important thing to be kept in mind is that the examination should test the pupil's ability to organize material, to see relationships, and to become aware of the continuity of civilization. Other teachers may test for different purposes from those mentioned here.

During the year, tests should be given to determine the degree of mastery of factual material, important concepts, and time relationships. At the end of the year, a book report may be given as a final test. The report could be written on such books as J. H. Robinson's *The Mind in the Making* and should be treated in the light of the ideas presented during the year. In one school, under such a system of teaching as this, papers reviewing C. G. Shaw's *Trends of Civilization and Culture* were sent to the author of the book for comments and were returned with his appreciation and criticism.

In the case of the pupils who read more slowly, variations in the examinations must be made. One method is to ask for papers presenting concepts that have been discussed during the year. Papers of both the slower and the more able pupils incorporate the results of outside reading. These tests are entirely unorthodox but will always create unusual interest on the part of the class and will give an excellent indication of each pupil's accomplishments. It is hoped that attitude tests, which can be given at the beginning and end of the course to furnish a clue to the thinking of pupils on contemporary problems, will soon be available. Such tests are being tried and evaluated in many schools that were members of the Progressive Education Association's Eight-year Experiment. Other tests that have been constructed by this group should be of great importance in a course that must be judged by other canons than that of the amount of factual material learned. Information regarding pupil's attitudes will enable the teacher to carry on discussions of a controversial nature and at the same time show the greatest respect for student opinion. A paper in which the pupil makes a survey of the ideas with which he has dealt during the year is one of the best attitude tests.

Summary.—The world-history course has occupied a place in the curriculum since it superseded the general-history course after the First World War. It is usually taught in the tenth

grade, although this is not a universal practice. A careful selection of objectives is an important prerequisite for this course.

The definite objectives selected must depend upon the pupils and their plans for future education, but it is basic that all pupils get the concept of a dynamic and ever changing society. The organization of material may be either topical or chronological. If the arrangement is topical, care must be taken to preserve some sense of time relationship to prevent confusion in the minds of pupils.

Supplementary reading can be managed on the basis of the pupils' interests in various problems. Interest in reading is one of the valuable outcomes of such a course. It is difficult to find adequate textbooks for a world-history course. The reorganization of existing texts on European history for world history has not been entirely successful.

Geography is a necessary part of a world-history course, because the environmental factors are always important influences. World events have been greatly influenced by geographical factors and are not easily understood unless these are noted and explained.

There is no one technique for teaching such a course. Wherever possible, cooperation with other departments in the school makes the work more significant and interesting. The emphasis on fundamental concepts rather than the learning of a large number of facts is important.

No arrangement of units will fit every teacher's purpose. They may be organized either logically or chronologically depending upon the approach that has been planned. It is always necessary to preserve a unifying principle so as not to make for confusion on the part of the pupil.

Tests do not necessarily have to be orthodox to be significant. The important thing is for them to evaluate the pupil's ability to think constructively about the problems presented. The use of attitude tests in a world-history course will be very helpful.

Teaching world history can be valuable if it makes even a very small contribution toward checking the modern tendency toward tribal arrogance, which seems to be growing by leaps and bounds.

Questions

1. What are the important reasons for teaching world history?
2. Why was general history abandoned by most schools?

3. How can a world-history course be made to succeed when earlier courses in general history failed?

4. List some of the basic objectives for a world-history course.

5. What are the difficulties encountered in selecting adequate texts for a one-year survey of the world?

6. Make a list of units to be used in a one-year survey, these units to be adapted to pupils not going to college.

7. What is the function of supplementary reading in such a course? How should you go about selecting books and other material for the supplementary reading list?

8. What important geographical concepts should be emphasized in a world-history course?

9. Should the history of China, Japan, and India be treated rather thoroughly? Why?

10. Why is this course usually placed in the tenth grade?

11. Discuss evaluation in a course in world history.

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CHAPTER VII

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS, OR INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

A Course in International Relations.—The purpose of this chapter is to describe and discuss a one-year secondary-school course in international relations, or international affairs. Such a course is not commonly taught in high schools. In many, however, some study of world relationships is attempted as a part of a course in current events or problems of democracy. It is frequently marred by indefinite objectives, a lack of careful planning, and inadequate materials. An account of a unified and organized course in this important field may suggest means by which these problems may be overcome.

The Scope of a Course in International Relations.—A general statement of the scope of such a course might be the study of foreign countries and of their relations with one another and with the United States. This does not mean that the course is a specialized study of diplomacy or international law. It is not a branch or subdivision of any one subject. Rather, it is a fusion of a number of subjects, including history, geography, economics, and government.

Circumscription of the field is first necessary. Little enough can be learned in one year about the history, geography, and institutions of one country. How much less about many countries and their dealings with one another! This difficulty, which is no less to be surmounted in courses in European and world history, requires that some criteria of selection be established. The aims of the course from which these principles derive will be more fully discussed at a later point. We may here anticipate that discussion with some assurance that there will be general agreement on the following: (1) The maintenance of peace is of prime concern to all men; whatever sequence of events best exemplifies the endeavors and the failures, the perils and the hopes incident to the quest for peace has a claim on our atten-

tion. (2) In other countries, as in America, men seek economic and social justice as well as the realization of their own interests and ambitions; and to this end political systems are established, maintained, and changed. Those events and processes occurring in other countries which by similarity or contrast illumine the issues by which we are confronted in our own country are worthy of study. (3) Relations among other countries and of the United States with others which most directly infringe on the welfare or interest of Americans have a prior claim on our attention.

These criteria must be applied in accordance with the judgment and experience of thoughtful observers. Among the topics related to each of the three of these are: (1) nationalism and imperialism, the causes and consequences of war, international organization, America's role in international affairs; (2) various phases of some of the domestic affairs in the great industrial countries of the world; (3) relations of the United States with Canada, Latin America, and the Far East. Such a group of topics affords a preliminary basis for further demarcation and unitary organization in the construction of the course. It is an indication of what we are talking about when we speak of a course in international affairs in the secondary school.

It should be added that the course envisaged here includes, but does not consist solely of, the study of current events. In order to understand what is happening today, we must to the best of our ability study historical backgrounds, as well as geographical settings and economic principles. The First World War and the peace treaties, for example, are good starting points for a first study of the historical origins of much that is happening today. The course, therefore, without being primarily a study of post-war diplomacy will constantly refer to the history of the period since 1914 but will also delve further back into a study of such matters as industrialism, nationalism, and imperialism as well as other subjects.

Should a Course in International Relations Be Included in the Secondary-school Curriculum?—This question as to the desirability and practicability of such a course should be considered from two points of view: the one positive, the other comparative. Positively considered, the question is whether the subject is itself suitable and beneficial for study in the secondary school, in one grade or in another; comparatively, the question is whether

it should replace another phase of the social studies or another subject.

It would be inappropriate to enter into the comparative question whether or not international relations should replace American history, modern history, civics, and the rest; this is a problem of curriculum to be solved in the light of many considerations. Before this question can arise, there must be a demonstration of positive merit in this course.

It would be easy to muster a formidable list of arguments for the opinion that the subject is essentially unsuitable for secondary-school instruction. The content, it may be alleged, is vague, vast, adult, and remote. Rather than argue this question on general theoretical grounds, however, it is preferable to proceed directly to a description of a course in international relations based on classroom experience. A statement of the aims, organization and syllabus, methods, and materials used should help to show what is practicable in this field.

Objectives.—What results do we hope to achieve in teaching this subject? Among the most important are the following:

1. *To Stimulate Interest in the Public Affairs of the Adult World.* The initiation of pupils into the concerns of adults is one of the tasks of the secondary school. The social-studies teacher is particularly charged with the introduction of pupils to the public or social affairs of mankind—political, social, economic—in other words, with the making of citizens. What happens in foreign countries, and the dealings of the United States with alien nations, are a part of the social environment. Newspapers, radio broadcasts, newsreels, magazines, and books tell of foreign countries as well as of our own. Pupils need to be guided first to casual acquaintance, then to discriminating familiarity, both with these media of information and with the people and activities that they describe. This objective was described by a teacher who said that he wanted his pupils to "read the papers and talk easily about what they read"; yet crude though it is, the purpose will not be despised by teachers who know how pleased are both parents and pupils as this ability grows and how much is thereby gained in assurance by those who lack the advantage of a cosmopolitan home. Yet this is only a beginning. A course in current events, which includes both international and domestic affairs, may accomplish this much and

yet fall far short of the educational purposes of schools maintained by public money.

2. *To Understand in an Elementary Way and to Develop a Desire to Study and Understand More Fully the Processes and Problems Implicit in the Conduct of Society and the Different Peoples of the World.*—This larger purpose must be continuously more adequately achieved if the welfare of a democratic people is to be promoted. It increasingly requires the study of international relations. Two reasons may be offered for this statement. First, the interdependence of nations, their fellowship in prosperity and poverty, their institutional and cultural bonds are part of the social reality which, though we may be ignorant of it, will not be ignored. Secondly, inside each country that comes within the limits of western industrialism, similar social forces are at work—capital and labor, agriculture and industry, government and individual, militarism and pacifism, Fascism and Communism—and absorbed in all these are countless bewildered men and women. Ignorance of this larger world means misunderstanding of these things in our own country. Frequently, too, comprehension of what is happening at home begins to dawn, and interest begins to grow, as an outcome of study of events in other lands, which at first seem strange and foreign but then are seen to resemble what we have taken for granted or ignored in our own country.

3. *To Desire to Preserve Democracy and Peace.*—People with understanding but without will have not become effective citizens. No defense is needed for the assertion that children in American schools should become active and intelligent practitioners of democracy and laborers for peace. In so far as formal school studies can operate to this end, the study of international relations can be a valuable instrument. Democracy should be less lightly taken for granted when the experiences of other countries, both those which have lost and those which retain it, have been studied. Knowledge and sympathetic understanding of other people's needs should be more widely diffused; the ways in which wars arise must be ascertained; the efforts to avert them must be conned; the alternatives, weighed; and the human cost of war, vividly apprehended by as large a part as possible of the people if progress is to be made in ridding us of war. The secondary school is not too early a starting place for this endeavor.

Organization of the Course.—The objectives of the course must be kept clearly in mind as the organization is framed. A bare list of topics that may be selected in accordance with the aims has already been presented. These must be sifted, analyzed, and expanded into a series of units of instruction and study that can be taught and understood and each of which will advance understanding and realization of our purposes.

The outline that follows is an experiment in carrying out this task. Careful consideration, it is hoped, will raise practical questions and encourage teachers to rewrite it. A discussion of some of the problems involved follows it. This is only suggestive. It is intended to show how the course as a whole can be directed to the stated objectives with the parts subordinate to the whole and the details subordinated to the total process. Units have to be organized, and each unit needs to be developed.

I. The First World War (1914–1918) as a turning point in history
   A. Historical background
   B. Chief causes
   C. Results

II. Forms of government
   A. Democracy in Great Britain and France
   B. Socialism in Scandinavian countries
   C. Communism in Russia
   D. Naziism in Germany
   E. Fascism in Italy
   F. Other forms of government

III. The problem of war
   A. The Mediterranean area—Spain, northern Africa, and the Near East
   B. Central Europe and the Balkans
   C. The Far East—China, Japan, Russia, India
   D. Canada and Latin America
   E. The Second World War and its causes

IV. The problem of international prosperity
   A. Competition for raw materials and markets
   B. Population pressure, standards of living, etc.
   C. Foreign trade—self-sufficiency, tariff barriers, reciprocity, currency stabilization

V. The problem of world peace
  A. Organization of nations, Pan-American Union, World Court, League of Nations, the Havana Declaration
  B. Treaties—balance-of-power alliances, disarmament conferences
  C. Forces for peace—education, religion, art, science, anti-war organizations, international business organization, munitions control, etc.
  D. Reasons for the failure to maintain peace

Current Events and the Teaching of International Relations.—The events that are to be interpreted in such a course as this are largely events that are going to happen in the future, especially those which occur during the year in which the course is studied. This is obviously true, since one aim of the course is to understand the present and consider how to control the future.

The problem arises as how to plan for the methodical and purposeful study of current events. Events do not occur in order. No one could foresee in January, 1934, that within a month there would be civil war in Austria and a political upheaval in France; still less can such events be predicted when the course is organized. Yet such events arouse interest and may be of far-reaching importance. There seems to be a dilemma. Are we to ignore the day-by-day topical dramatic or important events in order to follow the outline already worked out, or are we to disrupt the course by studying these affairs as they occur?

The dilemma is unreal. We shall, of course, utilize the day-by-day stuff of history, but we shall not be merely gaping spectators at a newsreel. The organization of the course can be adjusted to current events without disruption. The following considerations, applicable to any study of present-day problems, may be helpful:

1. Major events in public affairs rarely occur without some preparation and expectation. The act that is headline news may be unexpected, but the forces and tendencies have been evident. This is true in the case of the events mentioned above. It is possible, therefore, for a teacher to be fairly well prepared to relate the day-by-day event to its setting. This is precisely what he does in planning his organization; he is anticipating the main lines of development, problems, and crises of the coming year.

2. There is nothing sacred about the order in which the units are presented. As in the study of each separate unit, so in the whole course, the initial presentation and the concluding review and continuous cross reference will contribute more to unity and understanding than will a prescribed and logical sequence of prearranged subject matter. The teacher with his units planned in outline at least can bring them forward or postpone according to his own judgment. For example, it would have been absurd for a teacher to postpone the study of the League of Nations until May, 1936, because that was "its place in the outline" when, together with Fascism and a first study of imperialism, the Ethiopian war demanded it to be studied in October and November, 1935.

3. The teacher can achieve reasonable synchronization with current events without skimping or abandoning any one unit in order to permit another to be taken up. The events of the day, however, may be still more closely articulated to the outline. In the first place, there is a reasonable likelihood that important developments will take place within the unit being studied. These will present, perhaps, new problems for investigation and may require a change of emphasis. Again, the outstanding events may be more closely related to units already studied. In this case, no harm is done if time is taken from the unit in hand for recall of that work. Finally, the event may be something not yet studied at all. A short time may be given to discussion of it; the difficulty of understanding it without fuller study can be shown; the fact that it dramatically exemplifies an issue that the teacher has previously referred to as a matter of importance that should be taken up during the year can be stressed; the desirability of taking up the relevant unit soon can be discussed; questions that arise can be recorded; a few pupils can be designated to assemble news items and other material to be used in the future study; in general, it can be used to arouse interest in the fundamental issues and the purposes of the course.

Available Materials and Their Use.—1. A skillful teacher, who embodies the desire for understanding, for democratic citizenship, and for pacific action that he teaches, is the one indispensable instrument of instruction. The point need not be labored, for it is a truism; but it must not be ignored, for it is fundamental. A word should be added by way of reassurance to those teachers

who fear that they have not studied the right subjects in college and who feel that their knowledge is too little encyclopedic to justify their teaching such a course. Clearly, the wider the training in history, social sciences, literature, and philosophy the better; but the secondary-school teacher need not wait on omniscience. A plea may be entered for enlightened amateurs. A young teacher whose college work has not directly equipped him in this field can equip himself if he strongly desires to do so. Preliminary preparation might include these: a study of some good history of recent events such as W. C. Langsam's *The World since* 1914; F. L. Benn's *Europe since* 1870; the series of annual publications *The United States in World Affairs*[1]; Isaiah Bowman's *The New World; Current History and Forum* magazine; and *Foreign Affairs* magazine; publications of the Foreign Policy Association and the World Peace Foundation; and the publications of some peace organizations, for example, The National Council for the Prevention of War and the League of Nations Union. Excellent bibliographies and guides to study can be obtained from these sources as also can periodical summaries and interpretations of international affairs.

2. The better the teacher of international affairs the more he will desire to wean his pupils from dependence on himself as a source of information and a fount for questions. The widest possible array of study materials must be provided; they must be selected with the greatest care, and their use must be prudently planned; otherwise the outline is an empty promise.

In selecting papers, periodicals, and books, the teacher must always be on his guard against the easy habit of choosing them with an eye chiefly to his own tastes, skills, and interests. The book in which a college student has found most light on Japan, for example, may be tedious and unintelligible to the high-school pupil; and a learned discussion of a crucial point in international law may be a lot of silly talk to an adolescent. The books and articles that best present the subject may be the worst for high school—or they may be the best. No generalization on the matter is entirely safe. It is usually true that abstract and technical terms are danger signals. The fate of human beings is our subject matter, not a "branch of social science." Books that

[1] Published annually since 1931 by Harper & Brothers for the Council on Foreign Relations.

enthrall and challenge, provoke, inspire, as they tell of men's social and political life, are too few, but they should be sought.

In the use of materials, special attention must be paid to the question of general availability. For example, a whole class must not be expected to find an answer to a question that is answered in only one article in a magazine of which but one copy is accessible. Pupils must not be expected to perform conjuring tricks. To insure that materials are available for all pupils to obtain required information is as much the duty of the teacher of social studies as is the provision of necessary laboratory material the duty of the teacher of physical sciences. The balance between work required of the whole class and that demanded of individuals, as well as that required within more or less limited time, must be struck with this principle in mind.

Textbooks.—This course has not been planned or organized around any textbook and self-evidently could not be confined to the pattern of any conceivable text. Yet it is difficult to teach without some kind of text in mind. There is a core of information that all the pupils need, scarcely to be obtained with any uniformity from scattered sources and then only with waste of time and effort. Besides, a good textbook can be a gold mine of hints on syllabus-making, projects, and techniques.

Other resources are available. If a good modern European history textbook is in use in the school, it may be placed in the hands of the pupils as a text or placed in large numbers on reserve. This can be supplemented by a good American history text which would supply answers to many questions about America's part in world affairs.

It may not be practicable for each pupil to have in his possession a copy of several histories, European and American, that are to be used only in part, but it should be possible to bring together in the classroom a fair array of various histories to be used as part of the laboratory equipment. The resources thus available must. of course, be carefully studied as units are planned.

For work to be done at home, individual reading and projects will, in part, be utilized. For a common basis, every pupil may be provided with a copy of a weekly periodical. *Time* or *Newsweek* may meet this need. Better for the purpose, in the writers'

experience, is *The American Observer*.[2] This eight-page periodical contains each week two long articles on two recent important events, giving a summary of the facts, the background, and both sides of controversial questions. One topic is always of international, the other of domestic, significance. Other pages contain short paragraphs of news and comment on events both foreign and domestic and an essay on phases of American history. By judicious selection of topics for major discussion, repetition is fairly well avoided. A free supplement, the *Civic Leader*, which is sent weekly to the teacher, gives suggestions for the teaching of contemporary affairs and bibliographies. This paper constitutes an excellent text. In using it, teachers should be careful to avoid making it an excuse for a routine day-to-day current-events class. The difficulty that interesting and important events do not occur according to the schedule of units has already been discussed, and methods of countering it suggested.

Again, map work may be required. Well worth considering as a text to be used by every pupil in this connection is J. F. Horrabin's *Atlas of Current Affairs*. This little book contains many maps of important points in world affairs and, opposite each, a page of interpretative comments. Both as a text in itself and as an aid in map work, it is invaluable. It is hoped that these hints will suggest that resources are available, as texts or in place of a text, that make possible simultaneous work on the same task, when that is desirable. Other possibilities will appear to the teacher who explores the problem.

Other Books and Periodicals for Class Use.—The problem here is to insure a supply of readable material sufficient for the whole class. Let us take a unit on Mussolini and Fascism as an example. In the library is one copy of *Mussolini's Italy* by Herman Finer. This is too hard and too long for our pupils; besides, all cannot read one book at the same time. How are we to proceed? First, we see that several phases of the general question need not necessarily be studied by all at the same time. There are some geographical and statistical questions; some historical questions about Italy's part in the war (perhaps unification and the Roman question, too); Mussolini, the man; establishment of Fascism;

[2] Published weekly by the Civic Education League, 8 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

ideas and operation of the dictatorship; analysis of Italy's relations with other European powers; the Ethiopian war (with data about Ethiopia); and Italy's part in the Second World War. Some can be working on one question while others work on another, using a variety of materials.

There will be standard reference books—encyclopedias, several copies of the *World Almanac*, the *Statesman's Year Book*, and atlases. Moreover, there will be copies of books that, because of general usefulness throughout the course, are kept on permanent reserve—transferred if necessary from library to classroom for each class meeting at which they may be used. Such will be the history texts already discussed, several standard geographical texts, Isaiah Bowman's *The New World*, G. D. H. Cole and M. I. P. Cole's *Intelligent Man's Review of Europe Today*, F. H. Simond's *Can Europe Keep the Peace?*, W. C. Langsam's *World since* 1914, F. H. Simond's and Brooks Emeny's *The Great Powers in World Politics*, John Gunther's *Inside Europe*. Herman Finer's book and George Seldes' *Sawdust Caesar* may be there for the occasion. The *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature* and the files of magazines in the school library will have been studied in advance, and an array of relevant material assembled. The *National Geographic Magazine* will picture the country and its people. Articles in *Current History and Forum*, and *Foreign Affairs* will review the history of Fascism or discuss particular problems; the weekly news magazines will dramatize recent events and the people who are concerned in them; the monthlies will provide controversial discussions of dictatorships, Fascism, sanctions, and the like. Both the more conservative and the more popular weeklies will afford similar material.

Pamphlets can be obtained with a little planning. From Italian sources can be derived frankly pro-Italian propaganda—the Italian view of Mussolini and Fascism and Italian policy. The Foreign Policy Association, the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, and the League of Nations Association will amply repay the cost of school subscriptions. The *Headline Books*, *Foreign Policy Reports*, *International Conciliation Pamphlets*, and the like can be obtained at small cost. The literature of the peace societies will include matter pertaining to the subject. Finally, a good and growing "information file" should be kept and gleaned for use in each unit.

Such materials, both those on permanent reserve and those assembled for use in this unit, will be considered as the unit is planned. Some will overlap; but as a whole, they will be classifiable into categories to be used by different groups of pupils as they work on different aspects of the unit. After the first presentation and a common study of some of the material, it matters little if one works first on a study of Mussolini and his ideas while another works first on the geography, population, and resources of Italy and another on the Ethiopian campaign. Each will take up all the chief aspects before the unit is completed, and the organization at the end will unify and give more logical unity to the whole.

It will be recalled that the study of Italian Fascism is only a phase of the total unit on Fascism. Some pupils may well be studying simultaneously German National Socialism. Similar materials will be provided. Thus, the total stock available in the classroom for use will be ample to meet all needs even of a large class.

Other Teaching Aids.—1. Pupils should not be told to hunt vaguely through magazines for an "article on the subject." The teacher should do the job of selecting and making available the relevant articles, as far as possible. This admittedly requires a good deal of work, but the teacher can fairly quickly become adept at recognizing by a quick survey what the thesis of an article is and whether or not it is suited to his pupils' understanding, whereas a pupil cannot be expected to judge if an article will be suited to the purpose at hand and to his understanding. Similarly, if a fairly difficult book like Finer's is placed on reserve, the teacher should direct specifically to its treatment of a particular topic the suitability of which he is convinced [for example, in this case, Mussolini's youth and character (pages 39–59), spiritual gains and losses of Fascism (pages 535–550)].

2. It is proper to depart from this procedure at times in order to initiate pupils into the art of the independent use of the library. At the beginning of each unit, two or three pupils may be required to compile a bibliography. Specific guidance as to books or magazines or pages in which the required information can be found may be diminished, perhaps at the end omitted. This should be done, however, with the deliberate intent of developing library skills; it should not be an excuse for evading the responsi-

bility of insuring that the needed materials exist. Above all, the teacher must be assured in advance that the task can, in fact, be performed within the resources available.

3. It should be remembered that articles in adult magazines vary in intelligibility and interest for pupils. The writer's experience, for example, is that the *Nation* is frequently too allusive and *Harper's* often too heavy for secondary-school pupils. *Current History and Forum* is more interesting in its present combined form than formerly, although many of the articles have always been usable. *Asia* is usually acceptable. In this connection, too, individual differences in pupils should be observed, and the changes in a pupil at the beginning and at the end of such a course should be taken into account.

Books for Individual Reading.—This course does not achieve its full purpose if the pupils are not induced to read books that bear on the important issues involved. A survey of facilities should reveal whether or not it is feasible to require some such reading of all pupils. The contents of the school library (if it lends books) and the public libraries, and the possibility of improving both, should be examined. If these are adequate, required reading may be planned. A possible plan is as follows. In the first part of the year, each pupil must read and report, orally and in writing, on two books, one of which may be fiction, on any aspect of the subject—memoirs (for example, *The Education of a Princess, I Write as I Please*), biographies (for example, Emil Ludwig's *Hindenburg*), studies of particular countries (for example, Louis Adamic's *Native's Return,* Maurice Hindus' *The Great Offensive*), books on politics, economics, races—as catholic a list as possible. The teacher should be prepared with recommendations. Reports should give the theme of the book clearly and reasons for advising other pupils to read or not to read it.

In the second half of the year, two books on one subject may be required and a paper on the subject, rather than on the books. All may be required to read and write on the subject of "International Peace." Satisfactory performance of this work should be part of the required work. Allowance for reading time should be made in scheduling homework.

In the selection and recommendation of books, there is a broad field for cooperation with the teachers of other subjects. It is

sometimes asserted that the only way of effectively contributing to international understanding in a high school is by the study of the great writers who express the eternal spirit of their peoples. It must certainly be admitted that a social-studies course is likely to fail of its objectives if it reduces the study of other nations to an arid knowledge of political forms and sophisticated simplification of diplomacy. This sad fate will not befall the course if the units, procedures, and materials are planned with the aims of the course always in mind. The resources of other teachers and their subject fields should be employed, however, as further aids. It may be possible to arrange for a study of the literature and art and scientific achievements of foreign peoples throughout the same school year. If this project is too ambitious, the social-studies teacher himself should provide for such work to the best of his ability. Novels, essays, plays, travel books, music, art—all will be used. A great work of art, it should be observed, need not be contemporary in order to be significant; *Anna Karenina* will illuminate the study of present-day Russia. More recent books, however, which might not find a place in an English course, may be of value in this course. *Fontamara* by Ignazio Silone, a story of peasants in Fascist Italy, is an example. The social-studies teacher will rightly show the social implications of such works but should guard against the temptations to expound a great novel as if it were only a sociological document.

The Use of Newspapers in a Course in International Relations. The use of newspapers is fraught with great difficulty. On the one hand, their content and their use are often superficial and insignificant. It is a fair question whether it is not more desirable to lead pupils away from them rather than toward them. On the other hand, an awakening interest in the newspaper is often the evidence of a stirring of attention to public affairs and, as such, should be encouraged; many pupils enjoy such activities as clipping and making scrapbooks; and for most others, a newspaper is the one accessible source of information provided at home.

Newspapers, it may be concluded, should be used, but their part should be subordinate. Possible uses readily suggest themselves. Each pupil may keep a notebook or scrapbook on some one topic—a country or an issue—preferably annotated. The news columns should not be the only source used; an intelligent

pupil would profit by putting together excerpts from editorial opinion on international issues or from a "commentator" or the correspondence column or reported speeches or cartoons to display attitudes and opinions. Extracts read to the class on suitable occasions will excite discussion, especially if another pupil has used a rival paper in the same way. One night a week set aside for this work will help further to solve the problem of "assignments." The work, if required at all, should be held to a high standard of neatness and thoroughness.

Newspapers will also be used to stock the information file. If this work is not done in the library, it should be undertaken as a class project, with time set aside, pupils assigned to it, and materials provided. *The Christian Science Monitor* is indispensable, as also is the Sunday edition of the *New York Times*. Other papers vary in value.

International Relations in the Social-studies Curriculum.—The course here described is planned for pupils in the junior or senior high school. Interest in adult affairs, a sense of responsibility reaching beyond immediate personal relationships, and analytical power are among the characteristics that are maturing at this period.

The aim in writing this chapter has been to show that such a course is practicable and in itself desirable. It is thus a plan for consideration. If the course in this form cannot be included in the curriculum, however, there may be a place for it in part. For example, if a course in modern European history is taught in the school, it is worth considering to what end it is directed and if it cannot and should not be changed. May not half the year's work be planned along the lines indicated? Or, in a course in civics or problems of democracy, much of this course may be incorporated. In days when Fascism, Communism, Naziism, Socialism, dictatorship, reciprocal trade agreements, and inflation are current coin in talk about domestic affairs, it is self-evident that isolation cannot extend to the fundamental social forces. Some of the units here described may well be adapted to the needs of a course of which responsible decision on domestic issues is the main objective.

Finally, the teacher who is charged with the duty of teaching current events once a week may be able to adapt some of these suggestions so as to stimulate interest in the implications of the

daily news. The aim should be the thoughtful and direct consideration each week of one major topic or incident or its relation to some one dominant theme.

Summary.—Although courses in international relations, or international affairs, are not commonly offered in high schools, some study of world relations is often included as a part of the work in current events or problems of democracy. Such a study, however, is frequently marred by indefinite objectives, a lack of careful planning, and inadequate materials. Present-day conditions appear to require a special course in which the important aspects of international affairs may be studied.

The chief objectives of a course of this type may be briefly stated: (1) to stimulate interest in the public affairs of the adult world; (2) to understand better the work and problems of the different peoples of the world; (3) to desire to preserve democracy and peace. The achievement of these aims will certainly aid the development of better citizenship.

In organizing a course in international affairs, it is well to take into consideration the historical background. The First World War might be the starting point, although, when certain topics are studied, their origins might be traced much farther back into the past. Emphasis, however, will be placed on the present. This raises the difficult question as to how to plan for the methodical and purposeful study of current events bearing on international relations. Should the teacher ignore the day-by-day events in order to follow an outline already worked out, or should he interrupt the course by studying the events as they occur? In answering this question the following should be considered: (1) Major events in public affairs rarely occur without some preparation and expectation. The teacher, therefore, can anticipate the main lines of development, problems, and crises of the coming months; (2) There is nothing sacred about the order in which the units are presented, for the teacher may bring them forward or postpone them according to his judgment; (3) Reasonable synchronization with current events without skimping or abandoning any one unit in order to permit another to be taken up may be achieved by careful planning. The events of the day may be closely articulated with the outline.

The materials of the course must be carefully selected and made available for the pupils. These include texts in recent history,

reference books of different types, encyclopedias, magazines, and pamphlets relating to international affairs. Books for individual reading must be thoughtfully selected.

A separate course in international relations on the secondary-school level is both practical and desirable. In days when international problems confront us, it is evident that isolation cannot extend to the fundamental social forces. Training to understand these issues must begin in the public schools.

Questions

1. What are the bases for the selection of topics for a course in international relations?
2. What reasons can be given for and against including a course in international affairs in the secondary-school curriculum?
3. What are the important objectives for such a course?
4. What principles of organization should a teacher keep before him in preparing an outline of such a course?
5. How can current events be synchronized with the course in international relations?
6. What sources of materials other than those listed can you suggest?
7. What important factors should be kept in mind in making assignments?
8. In what year should a course in international affairs be taught? Give your reasons.
9. What experiences other than those given can be suggested to supplement the work?
10. Suggest ways in which this course can be taught in cooperation with other courses.

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CHAPTER VIII

CIVICS AND GOVERNMENT

The Need for Improved Civic Education.—The need for improved civic training in American democratic society is obvious. It is apparent when we consider certain political, social, and economic conditions in many communities of our country today. When votes can often be bought, when officials can frequently be bribed, when the police time after time fail to make arrests on plain evidence, when government officials fail to enforce laws, when hundreds of criminals each year go free, when representatives of the people betray their constituents for their own selfish interests, and when large sums of money for public service are wasted, it is clear that the need for improved citizenship is great. American democracy has defects that must and can be overcome. But it is essential to keep in mind that if society is to improve, the individuals that make up American society must be improved.

The Achievements of the Public School.—The public schools have been an important agency in training for good citizenship. Regardless of the defects and problems of American society, much progress has been made in spite of rapid and complex social changes. But the schools must be more than they have been in the past. Improved civic life should be the one outstanding aim of all education. Much must be done to educate our pupils to a knowledge of existing evils and to develop an intense desire to bring about reformation in those aspects of civic life where reform is needed. Education should be shaped toward this end, and all fields should contribute toward training a class of men and women who will be able to take their places in the changing complex life of today and to adapt themselves to the even more difficult life of the future.[1]

Civic Education in the Entire School.—During recent years, much thought and attention have been devoted to developing

[1] See National Education Association: *Learning the Ways of Democracy: A Case Book of Civic Education,* Educational Policies Commission.

programs of civic education in the schools. Such plans should take into consideration the entire twelve years and the whole work of the school. Each part of the program must be logically placed in accord with the findings of psychology, sociology, and education. Each subject and each unit should contribute wherever possible. Pupils should be taught that they have individual responsibilities, and they should be made socially responsible in every classroom, in the whole of school life, and in the community. However, if the schools are to succeed in laying foundations in the attitudes, ideas, ideals, purposes, and standards that will enable a democratic form of government to maintain itself, the social studies must assume the chief responsibilities. And among the social studies, the fields of civics and government can be the focal point for such instruction.

The Evolution of Courses in Civics.—The teaching of civics in the secondary schools of the United States goes back to the early part of the nineteenth century, when a study of the Constitution was introduced into a few schools in connection with the earliest courses in United States history. Courses called civil government followed. These generally treated the United States Constitution and aspects of the federal government. To such work was frequently added a study of the constitution and machinery of state government. The textbooks of the nineteenth century were extremely formal, and the method used in the classroom was largely, if not entirely, that of memorization. Toward the close of the century, modifications began to take place that gradually changed the content of the subject. The change in the term "civil government" to "civics" clearly denotes the materials of the new subject. In comparison with the older narrow presentation, civics has come to include not only a study of the relations between the individual and his government but also those activities which bring him into relationship with his fellow men. The viewpoint of learning only the machinery of government, to be used at some future time after school days are over, has also changed. The pupil must be regarded as a citizen with rights, duties, responsibilities, and privileges in relation to the community of which he is a member, whether that community is his home, school, neighborhood, or any social group to which he belongs. At the present time, courses in civics are usually given on the junior-high-school level,

although they may be found in the curriculum of many senior high schools. Usually, courses called government are offered in the last years of high school. Both these fields will be discussed in the following pages.

Modern Civics.—The teaching of civics in secondary schools should not be formal or technical. Too often such courses are "taken" by pupils largely for the credit obtained, and their chief interest, therefore, is to pass the tests and examinations imposed by teachers. The real purpose of a course in civics is to aid in training good citizens, and therefore the importance of developing worthy traits of character should be uppermost in the mind of the teacher and should occupy much of his thought and attention.

Traits of Good Citizenship.—It is evident that good citizenship is a complex of many different elements. The good citizen must be well informed; he must possess high ideals as well as attitudes and habits that conform with democratic aims; he must recognize and assume his responsibilities to society; he must possess self-reliance and self-control; he must be able to judge and make proper decisions; he must be cooperative, fair-minded, truthful, orderly, punctual, courteous, and obedient to authority. These traits are essential in individuals if a self-governing civilized society is to survive.

Classes should be encouraged to devise lists of qualities of good citizenship and should be guided in working out plans for developing such traits. An example of a creed drawn up and practiced by a class in junior-high-school civics is as follows:

Creed

We, the students of the seventh-hour class, in order that we may form a more perfect class, have established these goals so that the class, our lives, and those who are around us may be bettered by them.

Class Goals

1. Be a good follower if you can't be a leader.
2. Respect teachers and fellow students.
3. Work to the best of your ability.
4. Have all your work neat and on time.
5. Cooperate in all class activities.

LIFE GOALS

1. Be honest.
2. Cooperate in everything, everywhere.
3. Be prompt at all times.
4. Be courteous to everyone.
5. Respect yourself and others.[2]

With such goals kept continually before a class, effective results can be obtained, and training in citizenship stimulated.

Functional Civics.—If civics is actually to function in real living, it must be much more than a textbook study. It is necessary, however, for pupils to understand the various aspects of citizenship, but reliance must not be placed on books alone. Much stress must be placed on the development of traits and habits, besides intellectual ones, that are necessary for a good citizen. Therefore, provision for effective procedures and suitable activities must be carefully made if civics is to function in the lives of the pupils.

Factual Aspects of Civics.—An examination of a large number of courses of study in civics will show many different approaches to the factual aspects of the subject. Pupils should become familiar with the fundamentals of American democracy and should be encouraged to develop an appreciation for the heritage that has been handed down by previous generations. The basic principles and problems of living together should be stressed. Interest should be centered in one's rights, duties, and responsibilities as a citizen of his local and national community. Where controversial problems arise, a definite effort should be made to present varying ideas and points of view in order to stimulate pupils to think for themselves. Comparisons with conditions in nondemocratic countries should be made for the purpose of bringing out the ideals and practices of our own form of government and society. In doing this, emphasis should be laid on democracy as a form of government and a way of life. Much stress should be placed on plans for preserving and improving our democratic practices.

Civics as an Introductory Course to the Social Studies in the Junior High School.—In a number of secondary schools, the work

[2] JOHN P. DIX, "A Junior High School Classroom Project in Civic Attitudes and Conduct," *Historical Outlook*, 24 (May, 1933), p. 261.

in civics is made the introduction to the field of the social studies. The training that the pupil has received in the elementary grades should provide the basis or foundation for his orientation. His entrance into the junior high school should mark a definite advance in his maturity, and therefore an advanced type of training should begin. The new viewpoint should emphasize adaptation and adjustment rather than acceptance and conformity, which, of necessity, must prevail to a great extent in the lower grades. His ideas must be shaped in terms of modern technology and social changes rather than tradition and rigidity of thought. In addition to a changed point of view and adjustment—individual and social—much attention must be paid to the expansion of vocabulary, including words and phrases; for at this stage, the ethical-social significance of vocabulary is of most serious concern. The suggestions given here for an orientation course in civics, naturally, can be applied to any elementary course in this field but are especially important for introductory courses.

The Personal Approach to Civics.—The best way to become acquainted with government is to study how it affects our lives immediately. This can begin, for example, by a consideration of taxes levied by our different governments. Pupils are familiar with gasoline, motion-picture, and other direct taxes. The topic can be approached as in all taxation from the viewpoint of the ability of the individual to pay and the benefits received, as well as the authority of local and federal governments to tax. Other examples of the personal approach are the following: What does government do to protect life and property? What does government do for health? What does government do for education? The local boards and officers that carry out such work and of which pupils have a knowledge can be used as concrete illustrations of the activities of government. Pupils do not participate in elections, but the excitement of election time and the interest manifested in the homes of most pupils can be used as an approach to the study of politics. Political parties, their uses and abuses, the election issues, the qualifications for office, the place of the independent voter, the menace of the political boss, the "stay-at-home" voter, the eradication of corruption in politics, and many more topics might comprise an excellent approach, which comes close to the lives of pupils. Even if this approach is not used to

introduce the subject, it certainly should find a place in whatever plan is adopted if civics is to be made vital.

The Importance of Developing Patterns of Behavior.—Although the factual aspects of civics have been discussed, it is obvious that in such a study, the teacher must direct and encourage the formation of attitudes, ideals, standards, and habits that will result in desirable traits of citizenship. These have already been discussed in Chapter I. The responsibility for their development rests largely on the teacher, who must give considerable thought to them. The ideals, habits, and standards learned in the elementary school must be extended and adjusted to the new experiences of pupils.

The Meaning of Purposeful, Real-life Activities.—Practice in good citizenship involves psychological and social skills that cannot be acquired by studying textbooks alone but that require purposeful activities whereby pupils are initiated into democratic processes. Such activities must present a real-life situation within the school. Holding a constitutional convention or a court session or organizing a League of Nations is not a real-life situation. Although such activities have many values, they must be classified under socialized procedures or dramatization.

Real-life situations must involve responsibilities that immature pupils may rightfully assume. For example, pupil police courts, where children are tried and disciplined by children, should have little place in the junior high school, for the government of such pupils is too complex to be placed in the hands of immature youth. Pupils should participate and aid in making school regulations, but the application of rules and the enforcement of penalties are beyond the scope of pupil activities, at least in the junior high school. Then, again, responsibilities that belong to the teacher or janitor should not be imposed on pupils under the pretext of citizenship activities when the real purpose is to relieve others of tasks for which they are paid. Supervising study halls and patrolling school corridors are the duties of teachers, and cleaning up the school grounds is the work of the janitor. Pupils do have responsibilities in regard to their behavior in the school and in keeping school grounds clean, but to assign to them duties that belong to others is not only unfair but undemocratic and has little value in citizenship training.

Effective Procedures and Activities.—In the light of what has been said about real-life activities, a few examples might be cited. Reference has already been made to working out cooperatively a class creed. A poster that includes the class name, the class creed, and a life creed might be made after agreement has been reached by the class following reports by special committees. Every effort should be made to put into practice at all times the various aspects of the creed agreed on. Another worth-while procedure may be the organization of the class with regular officers and business conducted according to parliamentary procedure. There is danger that such a plan may become formal if imposed upon the class by the teacher; but if it is developed naturally, pupils are inducted into democratic processes and learn the rules of order really necessary to free government. The same may be true of forums and of panel discussions. Safety patrols, the home-room committee responsible for the appearance of the room, the class committee that directs activities relating to the bulletin board, and the keeping of a civic-attitude and conduct diary by pupils are other examples of worth-while activities. In the broader work of the school, such activities might include the planning and administration of assemblies; the care of halls, libraries, and lunchrooms; and the control of athletics.

Cooperation between the School and the Community.—Cooperative activities between the school and the community are receiving much emphasis at the present time. In some communities, for example, schools have exerted an influence to clear slums or to have police departments install traffic lights at dangerous intersections. Supporting the Junior Red Cross, taking an active part in such community activities as Clean-up Week, and aiding community-fund campaigns result in benefits to pupils by their active participation and help the community and even the broader field of humanity. Excellent suggestions and plans can be found in Clyde B. Moore's *Citizenship through Education* and in Paul R. Hanna and Others' *Youth Serves the Community*. In the latter, examples of community-improvement work are given the headings of "Public Safety," "Civic Beauty," "Community Health," "Agricultural Improvement," "Industrial Improvement," "Civic Arts," and "Local History." The examples illustrate important social and educational pur-

poses for which such activities are conceived and indicate how such community activities may be planned and carried out.

High-school Courses in Government.—In most senior high schools, courses in government, occasionally called political science, are given. Usually, attention is centered on local, state, and national government. The study differs from the government taught within courses in civics on the junior-high-school level in that there is more emphasis upon the organization and complex problems of American government. Stress should also be placed on the daily activities of government and on the important part that the individual citizen must take in the processes and progress of American democracy. The inculcation of such attitudes, ideals, standards, and habits, begun in earlier grades, must be continued and reemphasized. Chief among these are a respect for authority, obedience to law, a consideration for the rights of others, a sense of personal responsibility as a citizen in a democracy, and an unqualified loyalty to one's country. Without these one cannot be a good citizen.

Realism in Studying Government.—Facing and understanding the actual facts of governmental activities and politics is sometimes called political realism. Between the information found in textbooks, reference books, and source books on the one hand and the actual conditions of government on the other is a wide gap which generally can be bridged only through the aid of the teacher, who himself must have a realistic conception of things as they are. Politics and government may be as honest and as fair as business, but unfortunately the corruption of some officeholders and politicians is advertised and gains publicity, whereas honest, hard-working public servants who by their acts show their genuine interest in the social welfare go almost unnoticed. It should be a part of the instruction in government to stress the self-sacrifice and outstanding work of political leaders as well as to consider the evil actions of others. The teacher must be responsible for emphasizing political idealism, appreciation and respect for democratic processes, and the importance of what can be accomplished through political action toward the betterment of society.

Opportunities for Exercising Citizenship in Adult Life.—One of the chief deficiencies of the teaching of government in secondary schools has been the neglect to study the various avenues whereby

the ordinary citizen may play a part in politics and exert an influence on government. Activities in political parties or citizens' associations or voters' leagues, running for public office, taking part in civic forums, and preparing for administrative positions are a few of the ways open to citizens to exercise responsible citizenship. The attention of most pupils is usually called to the importance of "getting out the vote," but most frequently little stress is placed upon the opportunities that will be open to them when they take their place in community life to improve its political and social aspects.

Difficulties in Teaching Government Realistically.—A recent report of the National Education Association points out the difficulties in teaching government realistically.[3] On the basis of reports received from teachers, topics most often "avoided" or "tactfully handled" are "Politics-general," "Local Politics," and "Communism." According to a majority of teachers, "fear of outside pressure groups" is the reason for avoiding such controversial topics. Opposition to such teaching might come from several sources. Parents frequently believe that high-school pupils are too immature for such studies; corrupt officeholders and unworthy politicians would naturally object; and the question has been raised as to whether or not all teachers are competent and unbiased enough to direct such thinking. A recent writer has suggested some solutions: (1) endorsement of the realistic teaching of government by teachers' organizations all over the country by encouragement, resolutions, and in every possible way; (2) the teaching of the Constitution—the framework of our democracy—so as to make clear its underlying purposes (this would mean especially the contrasting of democracy with Fascism, Nazism, Communism, and other nondemocratic forms of government); and (3) taking steps to promote "the realistic teaching of government throughout the country without subjecting competent teachers and school officers to impairment of reputation or to loss of their jobs."[4] To this list might be added another, that of raising the standards of teacher selection and teacher training higher than they have ever been before.

[3] National Education Association, *Research Bulletin*, 15 (November, 1937) pp. 187–258.

[4] P. H. Hanus, "Realistic Teaching of Government and How to Get It," *School Review*, 46 (November, 1938), p. 662.

Activities in a Course in Government.—Many of the individual and community activities discussed in connection with junior-high-school civics may be used in a course in government (page 143). The activities in earlier courses in the social studies should be continued but broadened and adjusted to the more mature pupils of the senior high school. An example of what is being done in Pittsburgh to develop realistic pupil participation in community interests should be mentioned. In that city, registration cards are provided for each pupil in all junior and senior high schools. These cards are similar to those used by the actual voters who are required to register once for participation in the regular elections. If a pupil is transferred from one school to another within the city, his registration card goes with him. On election day, when adult voters go to the polls, every high-school pupil votes for the same officers who are to be chosen in the regular polling places on that day. Before the election, pupils have the opportunity of analyzing the issues and discussing the merits and politics of each candidate. The registration cards are kept in the schools after the pupil has graduated or leaves for any other reason. At the age of twenty-one, he is notified by the school officials that it is his duty to register on the permanent voting lists of the city and to participate in his civic duties. This plan does not involve real participation in political life, but it encourages the pupil to think about the political phases of the community while in school, permits him to make choices, familiarizes him with the machinery of voting, and prepares him for political participation.

Student Government.—There is much difference of opinion regarding student government. It is evident that if pupils are to become responsible democratic citizens, they should be given the opportunity to govern themselves by the time that senior high school is reached. Increasing responsibilities should mark the progress made from the junior high school. The amount of responsibility placed upon pupils in regard to self-government will vary for different groups and different schools. They should be given as much freedom and liberty to govern themselves as they can stand. In some groups, this might be complete; in others, of necessity, it will have to be restricted. Self-government in a school is an excellent thing if it works.

In recent years, a movement has developed under the direction of the National Association of Student Officers that seeks to promote student government. Many high schools belong to this group. At one of these—the Parker High School in Chicago—the ideals of student government are worked out through the "Student Participation in School Control Organization." The pupils of this school, after consideration in home rooms and assemblies, adopted the following list of objectives of student government:

1. To educate . . . in civic responsibility.
2. To offer . . . experiences in leadership.
3. To give . . . opportunities to take part in the administration of school affairs which concern the student body.
4. To set the correct proportion for social and scholastic phases of school life.
5. To promote among the students a cooperative spirit and a feeling that they are responsible for the school as a whole.[5]

In many schools where plans in student government are used, the courses in civics and government occupy a central position.

Safety Education.—In many schools, safety education is included in courses in civics or government. In others, it is being made a separate course, in some cases covering an entire term. Some of these units or courses include a study of accidents of all kinds, from those which occur in the home to those on the highway. A fearful loss of life is involved in accidents of all sorts, and there is a definite need for stress on this aspect of education within the field of the social studies.[6]

Some courses in safety education limit the study to traffic accidents on the highways. The great loss of life and the large numbers injured in automobile accidents have awakened the public conscience to the need of education for safety. Safety campaigns, tests of various sorts for drivers, regular automobile inspections, and even instruction in careful driving have not

[5] Nellie Marie Quinn, "The Next Step in Student Government," *Social Studies*, 29 (November, 1938), p. 310.

[6] See American Association of School Administrators, "Safety Education," 1940 *Yearbook*, Washington, 1940.

lessened the number of tragic accidents. A thorough training which includes all aspects of safe driving must be given. But, most important, a sense of personal responsibility must be developed by every citizen. Until this is done, the number of accidents will not be greatly reduced. What is true of our highways is typical of all aspects of modern life. In our complicated machine-age civilization, responsibility is the price that must be paid for our higher standards of living and the progress that has been made.

Civic Training through School Organizations.—Much civic education can be developed through school organizations and societies. Membership in civic clubs, current-events clubs, history clubs, international-relations clubs, literary clubs, boy scouts, athletic associations, and others can contribute greatly to effective civic education. These afford many opportunities for intellectual training, as well as for the development of self-control, physical courage, and cooperative traits. It is important, however, that such work be closely related to the entire program of the school, and it must not be considered as something separate. As has been pointed out, all the activities of the school should be considered as an integrated whole.

Material for the Study of Civics and Government.—A vast amount of material exists on the subject of government and in the field of civic education. On civic education, the books by C. E. Merriam, *The Making of Citizens, A Comparative Study of Methods of Civic Training*, and *Civic Education in the United States*, are of outstanding importance. Bertrand Russell's *Education and the Modern World* is a stimulating introduction to the whole question of civic training, and David Snedden's *Education for Political Citizenship* presents problems of formulating a program of civic education. The more recent books pertaining to New York's Regents' Inquiry, especially the volume *Education for Citizenship* by H. E. Wilson, are serious studies. Many references are given in Olive Thompson's *Readings in Civic Education*, published by the University of California, and, of course, the latest references may be secured in the *Educational Index*.

In the field of government, a brief working bibliography, prepared by E. B. Wesley, may be found in his "Bibliographies for Teachers of the Social Studies," Part V, in *Historical Outlook*, 23

(March, 1932), pp. 127–130.[7] Raymond Moley's *The Practice of Politics* suggests a few important books in the field. Excellent summaries of the recent literature of politics have been published in *Social Education.*[8] The latest material in the field are included in the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature.* Magazines such as the *American Political Science Review* are too well known to be listed here. For classroom use, the bulletin of the National Council for the Social Studies, *Pamphlets on Public Affairs for Use in Social Studies Classes,*[9] is of much value. *A Bulletin of Free and Inexpensive Aids for High School Subjects,*[10] recently published, includes a section on the social studies.

Visual aids of all sorts should not be neglected in studying government. Motion pictures on the Constitution, Department of Justice, Supreme Court, governmental services, civil service, and many other aspects of government can be obtained by loan or purchase. Such publications as *Selected Films for American History and Problems,* by W. H. Hartley,[11] and the *Education Film Catalog,*[12] which is revised periodically, should be consulted. Charts, diagrams, and graphs to make the subject graphic and vital should not be neglected. The use of community resources should be utilized. In addition to references already given in this chapter relating to the community, the *Utilization of Community Resources in the Social Studies,* edited by Ruth West,[13] should be consulted.

Evaluation in Civics and Government.—Although it is fairly easy to evaluate the work of a pupil in acquiring factual information, it is most difficult to measure his development in terms of attitudes, certain skills, understandings, ideals, and standards.

[7] The bibliographies are also published separately by the McKinley Publishing Company, Philadelphia.

[8] PHILLIPS BRADLEY, "Literature of Politics, 1937 and 1938," *Social Education,* 3 (April 1939), pp. 251–266; and "Literature of Government and Politics Abroad, 1937 and 1938," *Social Education,* 3 (May, 1939), pp. 327–342. Similar articles may be found in this magazine for other years.

[9] National Council for the Social Studies, *Bulletin* 8 (1937), Washington.

[10] Published by the Allegany County Board of Education, Cumberland, Md.

[11] Published by Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1940.

[12] Compiled by Dorothy E. Cook and Eva C. Rahbek-Smith. Published by The H. W. Wilson Company, New York.

[13] National Council for the Social Studies, *Ninth Yearbook* (1938).

This field of measurement is in its infancy, but books like Alice W. Gibbons' *Tests in the Social Studies;*[14] T. L. Kelley and A. C. Krey's *Tests and Measurements in the Social Sciences;* and the *Fourteenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, will be of much help in such evaluation. However, it should be kept in mind that there is always the difficulty in measuring the intangible outcomes of education on paper, for a pupil's knowledge may differ greatly from his conduct. In other words, a pupil in a written test might express worth-while attitudes and ideals, which might find little place in his actual behavior. The teacher's estimate of the growth of a pupil is a factor that should be considered important in evaluation. The pupil himself, also, should be given the opportunity for self-evaluation through the use of an anecdotal record or diary, behavior journals, or other forms by which the benefits of self-evaluation may be carried out.

Summary.—The need for improved civic education is evident when we consider the defects and problems of American society. The public schools have achieved much in the past in regard to civic training, but much more needs to be done in a complex age of never ceasing change. Civic education must be planned for the entire school; each part of the program must be worked out in accord with the findings of psychology, sociology, and education.

The teaching of civics and government originated in American schools early in the nineteenth century when courses in civil government were introduced. Through the years, courses in civics and government have become important in training for citizenship. Civics is usually given in the junior high school, although such courses might be found on higher levels. The development of traits of good citizenship should be all-important in civics. Classes should devise lists of qualities of good citizenship and should be guided in carrying out plans for developing such traits. If civics is to function in the lives of pupils, it must be more than a factual, textbook study, although pupils must become familiar with the fundamentals of American democracy and have a knowledge of the basic aspects of government as well as the principles and problems of living together. The best approach to a study of civics is the personal one, whereby the

[14] National Council for the Social Studies, *Bulletin* 3, Washington, 1928.

pupil can see how government really touches him and his life. Patterns of behavior must be developed; and attitudes, ideals, habits, and standards extended and adjusted to the new experiences of the pupils.

Practice in citizenship involves real-life activities in the school and community. But real-life situations must involve responsibilities that immature pupils may rightfully assume. Putting into practice a class creed, pupil forums and panel discussions that are self-motivated, safety patrols, and committees that accept definite responsibilities are examples of effective procedures and activities. Cooperative activities between the school and the community are also of much value in citizenship training if they are selected, planned, and carried out intelligently.

In most senior high schools, courses in government or political science are given. In such courses, attention is usually centered on local, state, and national government. The daily activities of government, the meaning of democracy, and the place of the citizen in American democracy should be stressed. The development of attitudes, ideals, standards, and habits begun in earlier grades must be continued and reemphasized. The pupil in the senior high school should especially study political realism, and the teacher is responsible for emphasizing political idealism or government as it might be and can be ideally. Many difficulties are involved in teaching government realistically, and therefore many teachers avoid such an approach. Parents sometimes believe that pupils are too immature for such a study; corrupt officeholders and unworthy politicians naturally object; and many believe that all teachers are not competent to direct such thinking. Active support by teachers' organizations and others all over the country, agreement that the underlying principles of democracy should be taught, taking steps to promote the realistic teaching of government in the schools, and raising the standards of teacher selection and teacher training are some solutions to this vital problem.

Activities must be carefully selected and directed in the senior high school as in the junior high school. Opinions differ regarding the value of student government, but self-government is an excellent thing if it works. Groups should be given as much freedom and liberty to govern themselves as they can stand. The movement of student government under the direction of the

National Association of Student Officers has made much progress in recent years, and self-government functions in many schools.

Safety education is often included in courses in civics or government; but in some schools, it is a separate course, in a few cases covering an entire term. Such courses vary in content from a consideration of all types of accidents at home or outside to those limited to traffic accidents. Although safety education will aid in cutting down the number of automobile accidents, a sense of responsibility, necessary in all our democratic relations, must be developed by every citizen. Civic training can be furthered in many of its aspects through school organizations and societies, but such activities should be considered in connection with the entire work of the school and carefully integrated with it. Evaluation in the fields of civics and government should involve not only the acquisition of factual information but also the measurement of attitudes, appreciations, skills, understandings, ideals, and standards in spite of the difficulty of such evaluation. The teacher's estimate of pupil growth and pupil self-evaluation is also important.

Questions

1. Cite the reasons for the immediate necessity for improved civic education.
2. To what extent should civic education be planned for the entire school? Show how this can be done.
3. Trace the development of courses in civics and government from their origin.
4. Discuss the objectives of a course in civics.
5. What factual knowledge should be included in a course in civics?
6. Show the importance of developing patterns of behavior. How can this be done?
7. Give the meaning of purposeful, real-life activities in the school. Cite examples.
8. Outline a number of cooperative activities with the community in which pupils might engage.
9. Discuss the characteristics of a senior-high-school course in government.
10. What is meant by political realism? Political idealism? Give examples of each.
11. What are some of the difficulties encountered by the teacher in teaching government realistically? How may this problem be solved?
12. Analyze an activity that can be carried out in a course in government.
13. Give the advantages and difficulties in connection with student government.

14. Show what is being done in the schools in the field of safety education.

15. Discuss the types of material that can be used in a study of civics or government.

16. Enumerate the different factors that should be taken into consideration in evaluating the work in government.

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CHAPTER IX

PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

The Need for a Course in Problems of American Democracy.—An enlightened, well-informed citizenry is more important than ever before if our American democracy is to survive and make progress. It is a grave responsibility of the American schools to prepare their pupils for intelligent participation in community problems and enterprises. Although history courses have been taught for some time in our schools, many have felt that they have not sufficiently prepared the youth of America for the assumption of the responsibilities of democratic citizenship. The claim has been made that the outstanding weakness of history teaching, in this direction at least, has been its emphasis on the mastery of facts and on trends and its conflicting interpretations of what has happened in the past. This sort of training has developed many good scholars, but the demands of democracy call for more than scholarly thought. The proponents of a different type of course—a course in the problems of American democracy—urge that the pupils be given as much practical experience as possible, through classroom activities of all kinds, in many of the important social, political, and economic problems with which the people of the United States are faced. By this means, it is believed that American youth can be better trained for their adult responsibilities.

Such a course, given as the pupil approaches the threshold of adult participation in the community, presents vital issues in local and national life. It offers him the opportunity for discussion, investigation, and consultation on many major issues confronting America. It works toward the objectives of an improved understanding of the implications of those problems and of transmitting a knowledge of the processes through which intelligent action may improve the general welfare.

Its Adoption.—Courses in the problems of American democracy are, therefore, among the latest additions to the social studies

to gain acceptance in American secondary education. Such a course was suggested and recommended in 1916 by the Committee on the Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association. This Committee was apparently concerned that teachers of the social studies should expand their program to include more materials that would better meet the needs of pupils as they moved out into adult life.

Little progress was made in introducing such a course into the schools until after 1920. Courses in the problems of democracy were invigorated by the sudden interest in national and international affairs created by the First World War. The purpose was to develop a greater consciousness of the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. Since that time, they have become more widely accepted as one of the main subjects for study in the eleventh and twelfth grades.

More recently the inclusion of such courses in the curriculum has been given further impetus by the report of the Commission on the Social Studies in its *Conclusions and Recommendations.*[1]

Objectives.—The purpose of the new course, as set forth by the Committee, was not to discard one social study in favor of another or to combine the various social studies into one course to be given to pupils in their last year of high school. What was suggested was a course in "actual problems, or issues, or conditions as they occur in life, and in their several aspects, political, economic, and sociological."

Needless to say, the purposes of such a course must be consistent with the general objectives of American education, which imply, among other things, a fundamental faith in the American ideal of democratic government as an opportunity for people to live together successfully and happily and to develop those attitudes, skills, and understandings which will enable the individual, as a member of the social groups concerned, to become a positive force in the process of its achievement.

More specifically, five of the more important objectives toward which the work should be directed are: (1) to help each pupil make substantial progress toward an intelligent understanding of some of the outstanding present-day problems—social, economic,

[1] American Historical Association, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies: *Conclusions and Recommendations.*

and political—in order to discover why these problems exist and to consider means for solving them; (2) to help each pupil develop an interpretive, critical attitude toward the world in which he lives and gain the ability to think clearly about it; (3) to help each pupil develop a sense of social responsibility which recognizes his duties and obligations toward the groups of which he is a member; (4) to help each pupil learn to use effectively the sources of information from which to draw facts or data about these problems; (5) to help each pupil gain an adequate understanding of the vocabulary and fundamental concepts of the field.

Teachers should keep the objectives of the course or of a particular unit before the group by directing their attention to them from time to time or by implication as the discussion proceeds. Too often, objectives for a course are set up and then are seldom referred to thereafter, so that pupils too frequently lose sight of all the purposes toward which they are working.

General Suggestions for Organizing a Course in Problems of Democracy.—An analysis of many of the prevailing courses in problems of democracy leads to the conclusion that frequently there is no well-planned basis upon which they are established and upon which the content of the course is selected and organized. Another failing is that so often they seem to focus on the effects of social change rather than the causes for such changes.

To help teachers organize courses that will be free from these criticisms, the following general suggestions are made. They should be accepted on a tentative basis and subjected to the tests of actual experience before they are generally or finally accepted or rejected.

1. The issues chosen for study should be the basic continuing problems in contemporary society rather than those which, though severe and disturbing for a time, are in reality only temporary tensions or surface problems. The teacher might well use these latter, which so often illustrate one aspect of the deeper, underlying conflicts, as concrete examples or manifestations of the more basic problems that the class is to study. For example, the Works Progress Administration is a very controversial issue in many communities and a topic for much argument and debate. But it is only one aspect of the more fundamental problem of unemployment and relief with which this country is and has been

faced, to a greater or lesser degree, for many years. Or the very important problem of soil conservation should be viewed as only one aspect of the much greater, more inclusive question of the conservation of all of our natural and human resources.

2. Although there will be some similarities between the courses as taught from one year to the next, the fact that the importance of issues often changes in a period of several months implies the need for changing certain of the emphases of the course each year. For example, in 1936 or in 1940, the spotlight of attention should focus on the major political issues of the national elections; whereas in the following years, with the elections over for a period of time, the emphasis might well be placed more on the economic and the social problems with which the United States is faced. Or with the development of a great war, more study will be given to certain international problems and slightly less to some of the more purely domestic issues.

3. Because the problems course cuts across subject boundaries, the teacher should make frequent calls upon the knowledge and skills that a pupil has acquired in preceding years. For instance, a pupil who has had a course in ancient history might well compare the economic causes for the fall of Rome with the causes for the economic depression in the United States beginning in 1929. Or a pupil having had American history could be expected to know something about the rise and development of the American labor movement when he is studying the whole question of employer-employee relations in the United States.

4. Often there is a tendency to include too many problems in a year's study. This leads to a superficial examination of each rather than permitting the thorough study of the causes, effects, proposed remedies, and the like that should characterize the work in such a course. It is well to remember that the purpose of the course is not to give the pupils a bird's-eye view of the whole panorama of American problems but should be to develop habits of thinking, deepening interests, appreciations, and understanding. These latter are best acquired by thorough, painstaking study and experience. Obviously, then, not too many problems should be undertaken in the short period of one year.

5. Likewise, in selecting the problems for study, the ability, interests, and experiential background of the pupils, as well

as the materials available, should always be given careful thought. Too often, the content or experiences of a course of this type are meaningless because they are too abstract or theoretical for the pupils to understand, or they are so foreign to the experiences of the pupils as to be uninteresting and not very stimulating. Or the available materials are so scant as to be quite inadequate and ill suited to the purposes for which the problem was introduced.

6. Careful motivation should be a part of the introduction of all problems. The teacher may also find that it is frequently necessary to reinterest and restimulate certain members of the group when their interest lags or when their work is indifferently done.

7. The objectives of the course and the methods and materials used should be suitable to bring about the desired outcomes for those pupils who do not plan to go on to college as well as for those who do. Frequently teachers seem to forget, as they plan and teach, that the formal schooling for many of their pupils will end with graduation from high school.

8. The work should be planned to bring about a cumulative growth on the part of the pupils. This means that basic concepts and ideas should be used over and over in different units or projects so as to help the pupils gain a mastery of them and thus become better able to apply them intelligently.

9. Careful provision should be made in the suggested readings for individual differences in interest, academic aptitude, and general reading ability. Not all pupils will be equally interested in each problem. Though greatly interested, some will find the vocabulary load more difficult than they can comprehend easily. In meeting these and the many other important differences that exist among members of any group, the teacher must furnish a wide enough range of materials to enable all pupils in the class to read and work with maximum profit.

10. If possible, the classroom should be equipped as a workroom. It should include bookshelves for the numerous reference books that should be at hand; cabinets or closets for charts and maps; bulletin boards upon which can be posted all sorts of vital information and materials; and a filing cabinet in which to keep all the clippings, pamphlets, and other loose materials.

11. A word of caution seems advisable about the use of textbooks. The rapidity with which nation-wide and world-wide

upsets have been taking place have caused recent textbooks to become out of date in many respects. Obviously, then, a teacher cannot and should not depend solely upon a textbook if he wants to keep his course abreast of current trends.

Another failing of so many textbooks is that too often they try to discuss all the problems in one book and each problem as fully as possible. This tends, in many cases, to make for sketchy, superficial discussions of each. The treatment of most problems requires much supplementary material. True though these criticisms be, there is a place for informative books with their teaching aids. The main question confronting the teacher is: How shall they be used?

12. In teaching a problems course, trips to the center or source of the problems being discussed or to observe various aspects of the topics under consideration are valuable for supplementing the classroom experiences. They ought to be carefully planned; the pupils should be thoroughly interested in them; and a thoughtful follow-up must be a part of the work after the trip has been taken.

Some of the More Common Topics and Ways of Organizing Them.—The number of topics or problems that could make up a course of this type is almost without number. Those found most frequently in courses in problems of democracy are: consumers and their needs, using the natural resources intelligently, depressions and unemployment, social planning, nationalism, imperialism and war, labor organizations and labor relations, housing, crime, dependency and social security, regulation and control of communication, regulation and control of transportation, development of intelligent public opinion, development of responsible government, public administration and adequate civil service.[2]

No master list can be compiled because the problems considered by any group will have to meet the special needs of the pupils who compose the group as well as the community that the school serves. Also, what has been studied thoroughly in other courses, for example, consumer economics, will help determine the choice of problems.

[2] National Education Association, *Learning the Ways of Democracy: A Case Book of Civic Education*, Educational Policies Commission, is an invaluable book to teachers in this field.

After the topics or problems have been selected, the teacher is faced with a very important question: Shall they be grouped or classified as social, political, and economic problems and studied as such with a certain amount of time allotted to each group, or is this not a feasible way to proceed?

In actual practice, some teachers believe that the problems should be grouped or classified as social, political, and economic and that, in so far as possible, they should be studied as distinct types, with approximately one-third of a year devoted to the study of the problems in each area. For example, under social problems, they would list such issues as child labor, unemployment, crime, care of the physically and mentally handicapped, and public health. In the political category, they would place such topics as national and state governments, political parties, public finance, national conventions. They would list as economic such problems as production, consumption, distribution, conservation, money, and banking.

Other teachers find such a classification too artificial. They claim, for instance, that the problem of unemployment has important economic and political aspects as well as social and that any adequate study of this topic must cut across all such arbitrary lines. These teachers determine, often with the help of their pupils, upon the most important and perhaps most pressing problems to be studied and then take them up in whatever sequence seems best for the group with whom they are working, drawing upon whatever fields of information are necessary to enable their pupils to comprehend and profit by the study.

Neither of these two general plans has won universal acceptance; it remains a problem for each teacher to think through for his own group and from his own experience with such help as may be available from other sources.

One writer offers practical, helpful suggestions in this connection, regardless of which plan is used. Seven of these are given below:

1. State each problem in terms of problem, not remedy, *e.g.*, "Capital and Labor," not the "Labor Union."

2. Vary the problems, or manner of stating them from time to time, *e.g.*, "Electricity," "Water Power," etc., are now merging in one big topic—"Heat, Light, Power."

3. Proceed from effect to cause to remedy, which is the natural order of approach to social problems.
4. Make free use of appropriate theories, devices, and procedures in the discussion of each problem. This necessitates constant repetition of the more fundamental ones, till they are acquired by the pupils without formal memorizing—and thus acquired are retained.
5. Make constant use of high-school texts in economics, government, and sociology, where the young people will find the various aids to clear thinking in actual use.
6. Above all, do not be satisfied with superficial, purely descriptive discussions of these problems. Unless the technical terms of social science can be freely used, and general principles marshalled for or against proposed remedies, the problem method will not take its proper place in the curriculum. Of course, this sort of discussion can be stimulated and guided only by teachers thoroughly at home in the social sciences. Content is as indispensable for the teacher as technique.
7. Include, indirectly, certain fundamental concepts of all social thinking, such as: physical and social heredity; social adjustment and social control; the unearned increment; social deficit versus social surplus; the copartner versus the commodity view of labor; the police power of the state.[3]

In general, then, it can be said that the teacher of a course in problems of American democracy should select the method or methods of organizing his materials that will best meet the needs of his particular group.

A thoughtful consideration of these suggestions, general and specific, and a critical reflection on the complexity and magnitude of many of the social problems with which we are confronted raise at least two important questions: (1) Can the available materials dealing with the basic problems of modern society be organized and taught in such a way as to give pupils an understanding of most of the fundamental concepts that an individual needs to know in order to arrive at intelligent opinions and make reasoned decisions? (2) Do such courses, as usually taught, enable pupils to apply these concepts effectively as they consider the various proposals made for meeting, or "solving," these basic problems?

[3] J. LYNN BARNARD: "Problems Courses in the Social Studies Program," National Council for the Social Studies, *Sixth Yearbook*, p. 127, Philadelphia, 1936.

Answers to these two questions—and for the most part it is assumed that they can be answered in the affirmative—will help to determine the method of organizing the materials and arranging for the activities and experiences for the course in problems of democracy. It is granted of course, that some problems will be too complex, too great, and too difficult for the profitable study by pupils at the secondary level. This, however, does not seem to offer sufficient justification for not making any attempt to educate boys and girls, so far as possible, for intelligent, cooperative assumption of their opportunities and responsibilities as citizens in our American democracy.

Specific Plans by Which Problems Courses Have Been Organized.—There are four general methods by which teachers have selected the topics to be studied and have determined the means by which they are to be developed by the class:

1. The materials are selected on a certain topic and presented to the class in the form of an outline, a series of questions, or a list of topics. The teacher also submits the readings, some of which are required by all members of the group, others of which are merely suggested. The pupils are expected to prepare talks, debates, or reports in some other form from a list prepared by the teacher. During the class period, the teacher asks the questions and directs the discussions. Both teacher and pupils are free to comment on or ask questions on the talks or reports.

This method leaves little or no choice to the pupils and does not elicit their cooperation in planning the work. In this method, little is done to foster a democratic spirit in the classroom procedures, the teacher having set himself up as the authority with the ability to impose his will and ideas on the group. The method has worked and does work but not always in the best interests of the group.

2. This method is similar to the first except that it gives the pupils a little more leeway in making certain decisions for themselves, as well as in going a little farther in adapting the work to individual needs and interests.

Again, the teacher presents a problem, a topic, or a project to the pupils and makes suggestions for reading. Pupils work individually or in groups on the problems or projects; and at a time designated by the teacher, they report on the results of their work to the class. These reports are then open for discussion

and questions, both the teacher and the pupils participating. In addition, pupils are permitted to make special reports on any related topics of their own choosing, and these reports are then open to discussion by the group.

This procedure has within it the same limitations as the preceding one, with the exceptions noted above.

3. Under this plan, the teacher and the pupils work in cooperation, the teacher serving primarily as a guide. They decide upon a topic, problem, or project and then develop it in outline form by a general discussion in which each shares. Following this, and studying either individually or in small groups, the pupils work on aspects of the problem in which they are particularly interested. In those cases where certain phases of the problem are not selected, a group decision is made as to the method to be used in developing or studying them. At a time selected by the group, the individuals or the groups present their work in any form they see fit—by panel discussions, floor talks, debates, dramatizations, or other activities.

This does not mean, in any sense, a pupil-dictated curriculum. It does not mean a catering to adolescent whims or an adherence to the results of immature thinking. It does indicate that the work, under the guidance of a mature, well-educated, balanced adult, is carefully motivated by arousing the interest and enthusiasm of the pupils by eliciting their cooperation and thoughts in planning the work and making them feel an important part of all aspects of their educational experiences. It gives the pupils many opportunities to make choices, to assume the initiative, to develop self-reliance, and to make their own plans—all of which are desirable outcomes of any educational opportunity.

4. This plan deviates farthest from the traditional; and although it is an excellent one for certain purposes, it does possess many limitations when applied with ordinary, normal adolescents.

In this case, the pupils select their own topic, plan the methods of investigation and procedure, and develop their own problems through any means that they select—all without any help from the teacher except as the pupils may specifically request it.

A searching criticism of this procedure is found in the report of the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association, *Reorganizing Secondary Education:*

Though participation of students in curriculum-planning is of the utmost importance, the identification of even the more personal aspects of their needs takes its cues from all of their behavior and not alone from what they say they want to do or study together in school. Their plans are but partial indications of pervasive, underlying desires—indications which must be supplemented from other sources. Furthermore, these desires must be seen in a social context before educational needs as here conceived can be properly defined. Only with this background are educators fully in a position so to guide work begun on the basis of students' own plans that underlying desires are reconstructed in socially desirable directions.[4]

It must be reiterated that there is no one best plan. The teacher should select the one or aspects of several that best meet the needs of a particular group at a given time, bearing in mind, of course, all the things that he wants his pupils to develop as a result of their work with him.

Two Examples of Actual Classroom Practices.—Two examples of the ways in which courses in problems of democracy have been successfully conducted may throw further light upon the preceding statements.

One teacher gives an interesting report on the way she has conducted such a class. The class, limited to seniors and postgraduates, was told that it might study anything that it pleased, in any way that it chose, so long as the work represented a serious endeavor to understand public problems. The teacher put the titles of six problems on the board and then asked the class for as many additions as possible. The pupils were then requested to bring in this list of topics, with others added, or even an entirely new list arranged in order of preference for study.

A steering committee was elected, and the list of problem preferences was handed over to it for tabulation. The class then discussed the methods of class procedure. They decided that the chairman of the steering committee should be the permanent administrative class officer and that, from a list of volunteers, he should choose each day a leader for the first ten minutes of current-topics discussion and that the steering committee should draw up any further rules and present them to the class for adoption.

[4] Progressive Education Association: *Reorganizing Secondary Education*, Commission on Secondary School Curriculum, p. 417, New York, 1939.

After the most frequently chosen topics were listed, it was decided that committees should be in charge of the investigation and class presentation of each problem. Pupils made or expressed their preference for service on two committees, and the steering committee made the final appointments to committee service.

The first task of the new committee was to choose its own chairman, who then assigned the members to special investigations. The business of each committee chairman was to see that each member did efficient work and that all members were ready to assume charge of the class when it came time for the presentation of their problem.

The method of presentation was left for each chairman to decide. Most resorted to the time-honored lecture method. A few chose to give informal debates. Two tried to develop a question forum.

Part of the duty of each committee was to post in the social-science laboratory, one week before their problem was to be presented, a list of study references for the class as a whole to use. This list consisted not only of books and pamphlets but of good magazine articles that were available.

The class showed a desire to make investigating tours in order to see conditions about which they were studying, but scheduling the school times for such trips generally proved an insurmountable obstacle.

The class did take on the activities within the school having to do with the Community Chest and did a very successful job.[5]

Another method is the one that the writers have frequently used. When a new problem is opened up, some class time is spent in establishing and phrasing the main problem. The general nature of the problem is then considered; readings are suggested; and additional class time is given to a general discussion of the whole topic. Following this overview, each pupil selects a phase of the problem in which he is interested and that he wants to investigate further.

The usual procedure is for the pupil to begin by compiling a bibliography, from which he does his reading and note-taking. When two or more have the same interest, a small committee is

[5] ALICE N. GIBBONS: "A Modern-problems Class," *Social Education,* 2 (October, 1938), pp. 477–481.

formed, each having a special responsibility for the investigation and presentation.

Sometimes the problem is organized by the teacher in cooperation with the pupils for its final presentation to the class. Often one of the pupils is selected by the group to act as coordinator and chairman. In either case, the chairman gives an introductory statement, and this is followed by the reports of individuals or by contributions from the various committee members. These reports are open to discussion or questions by the group. Sometimes the reports are given in panel discussion form; at times they are delivered by means of a debate; and various other forms are used. In many instances, they are illustrated by graphic presentations by the pupil.

After the reports have all been presented, the chairman—either the teacher or the pupil—is expected to summarize the entire discussion. The participation of the whole class in drawing the reports together in a summary of the unit as a whole and showing its relationship to other work that has been done is one of the most valuable aspects of the work.

Occasionally a guest speaker, a special project, or a trip to see first-hand what has been discussed climaxes the work on a given unit or project.

These examples and the many more that could have been given should demonstrate that no single method of organization and presentation will hold for all groups.[6] The work for each class or for each group should be carefully planned and thought out. The teacher, in all cases, should have a clear idea of what is to be accomplished, the means available for this purpose, and ways in which progress toward the objectives can be evaluated.

The Importance of the Teacher.—The most important element in the educational experience of an individual usually is the teacher. This is particularly true in courses in problems of American democracy, for these are probably among the most difficult in the entire social-studies program to handle because a working command of the thought and materials of all the different fields is essential.

The teaching of such a course calls for teachers who have a broad background of general reading in history, psychology,

[6] See National Education Association: *Learning the Ways of Democracy: A Case Book of Civic Education*, Educational Policies Commission.

philosophy, economics, geography, politics, literature, sociology, and some science. It calls for a teacher who can communicate effectively his knowledge of these fields to his pupils. It demands teachers who have learned much in the past and who are continuing to learn more every day of the year. A teacher cannot be so well prepared in college to teach a course in the problems of American democracy that he can teach for years without constant and systematic effort to increase his knowledge. He must continue to learn and to understand.

Evaluation.—In teaching a course in problems of democracy, a teacher must be constantly conscious of the various important aspects of personality and behavior changes that should result from a course of this kind. He should be able to estimate at all times the degree of his success in helping each pupil to develop a rich, many-sided life. Obviously, this calls for evaluation techniques more inclusive than the written test or examinations that are usually employed.

There are many difficulties in appraising a pupil's growth as the result of the work in a course of this type. Many of the changes in attitudes and thinking take place slowly. Early prejudices are rooted out slowly, and often the new point of view that a pupil takes will not be clearly manifest for months or even years. Difficult as such an evaluation program may be, the teacher has, as one of his responsibilities, the obligation for gathering together all the evidence that he can to show the nature and direction of a pupil's growth or development.

In such a program, written examinations, anecdotal records, records of free reading, topics on which a pupil elects to study or to write, the pupil's own estimates of his progress, and many other things can and should be used.

Cautions in Teaching Problems of Democracy.—A teacher who is contemplating teaching in the social studies, and especially one who is preparing to teach a problems course, should be cautioned about three or four things that are often overlooked or erroneously assumed.

One frequent assumption, made by many curriculum makers, is that all young people are vitally and intensely interested in all current problems and events. This is not so. Many pupils' interests are quite narrow and often do not go much beyond the purely personal and seem to belong only to the immediate

present. A teacher should recognize this and not be discouraged when he meets such a situation. It should show him one of the fallacies of the proposal that the selection of the content of a course should be based solely on a pupil's desires, interests, or "felt" needs. In such cases, careful motivation is required to make the experiences educative to a pupil.

A second fallacious bit of reasoning is that if the teacher poses problems for study by his pupils, permits or even helps them gather facts from casual and undiscriminating sources, and then lets them put these facts together into equally casual patterns, he is giving sound training in preparation for democratic living. Therein lies one of America's chief problems—the loose, undisciplined thinking that so many citizens do on public issues. If the course is to serve the purposes for which it was designed, it must teach the pupils to think carefully, logically, and dispassionately, as well as help them to develop their powers of discrimination and judgment. These results are not achieved unless they are planned for and diligently sought by careful, accurate, thorough work.

Some more erroneous thinking is done by those who believe that they have improved civic training by substituting a course in social problems for one in history. This is not a valid proof of progress, nor is the mere addition of a problems course convincing evidence of a desirable change. The value of such a course must be tested by the results that it accomplishes, and this can be measured most accurately by observing in various ways how the pupils react in life situations.

Finally, some mistakenly believe, and try to carry this belief into their teaching practices, that pressing and onerous problems can be treated in the rather elementary, simple way that is required for pupils on the secondary level. This leads too often to the learning a smattering of much and a masterv of nothing by the pupils.

The teacher who elects or who is required to teach a course in the problems of American democracy is faced with a great challenge and is presented with many stimulating opportunities to do a significant piece of work in educating for intelligent, socially sensitive citizenship. Along with these go certain responsibilities that he cannot afford to shirk—careful study and steady growth on his part and thoughtful planning in terms of

the needs of the boys and girls with whom he is privileged to live and work.

Summary.—Proponents of the course, problems of democracy, believe that it is needed in order to educate more effectively American youth for the opportunities and responsibilities inherent in citizenship in a democracy. Such a course should offer pupils the opportunity for discussion, investigation, and consultation on many of the major issues confronting the United States. The adoption of the problems-of-democracy course, though urged as early as 1916, did not receive much recognition or acceptance until after 1920. Today it is widely taught in secondary schools.

Of the many objectives that might be set forth, five of the more important are: (1) to help each pupil gain an intelligent understanding of some of the outstanding present-day problems—social, political, and economic—in order to discover why these problems exist and to consider means for solving them; (2) to help each pupil develop an interpretive, critical attitude toward the world in which he lives and gain the ability to think clearly about it; (3) to help each pupil develop a sense of social responsibility which recognizes his duties and obligations to the groups of which he is a member; (4) to help each pupil learn to use effectively the sources of information from which to draw facts or data about these problems; (5) to help each pupil gain an adequate understanding of the vocabulary and fundamental concepts of the field.

In order to lay a sound basis for a course of this kind, several suggestions are appropriate: (1) The problems studied should be the basic, continuing problems rather than those which are temporary. (2) Because times and issues change, the content and emphasis of the course should be subject to constant, thoughtful revision. (3) The teacher should feel free to cut across subject-matter boundaries for information that is needed and also to call upon the pupil for knowledge acquired in other, perhaps previous, courses. (4) Not too many problems should be undertaken in a year's work. (5) The abilities, interests, and experiential background of the pupils in a class should be considered in planning the work for a group. (6) For each phase of the work, the pupils should be carefully motivated. (7) The course should be a profitable one for those who do not plan to go to college as well as for those who do. (8) The work should be

planned to bring about a cumulative growth on the part of the pupils. (9) Careful provision must be made in suggested readings and projects for individual differences of all kinds. (10) The classroom should be equipped as a workroom, with all the materials available for such a course. (11) The teacher should not rely solely upon a textbook as the source of information for the problems studied. (12) Trips taken as part of the work should be carefully planned and thoughtfully followed up after they are over.

The teacher has an almost unlimited number of problems from which to draw. Once the selection has been made, he is faced with the issue of whether or not he will try to group the problems into such categories as social problems, political problems, and economic issues.

There are various plans for presenting the course to the class. No single method is distinctly better than another; any plan must be suited to the particular group of pupils with whom the teacher is working.

Courses in problems of democracy demand teachers whose intellectual and experiential growth has not ceased with graduation from college, teachers who have continued an unceasing quest for knowledge and understanding.

The program of appraising pupils' achievement and development is an important one which all teachers must plan with care. Such a program should be as adequate as possible for determining their progress toward each of the objectives that were set forth as desirable outcomes for the course.

Questions

1. What reasons have been advanced in favor of teaching a course in the problems of American democracy?
2. Add to the list of given objectives others that you believe should direct the work of such a course.
3. What are two of the chief criticisms directed at the usual basis of establishing and teaching courses in problems of American democracy?
4. Do any of the suggestions given for organizing a problems course seem irrelevant or overstressed, or have any been omitted?
5. What are the two most common ways of organizing the topics of the course?
6. Of the four specific plans by which problems courses have been organized, which do you believe to be best? Why?
7. What is the greatest limitation against which teachers must guard in pupil participation in curriculum planning?

8. What sorts of experience would be helpful to a teacher of the course in problems of American democracy?

9. What weaknesses inhere in the usual, written-examination type of evaluation program?

10. What assumptions are made in planning a problems course?

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CHAPTER X

ECONOMICS

Economics as an Organized School Subject.—As a separately organized subject taught in the secondary school, economics is of relatively recent origin. It will not be found in the school curricula of the eighteenth century or the early nineteenth century. About the time that the social, political, and economic changes usually identified with the term "Jacksonian democracy" were occurring, a few secondary schools in the United States introduced courses under the name of political economy or else included aspects of economic theory in courses given in moral philosophy. Instruction in economics, however, was presented from the point of view of the importance and greatness of the state and was in no way a study of man in his relation to material things upon which so much emphasis is placed today.

The Early Teaching of Economics.—In spite of a Massachusetts law of 1857 requiring the teaching of political economy in the larger high schools of that state, neither there nor elsewhere in the United States did many schools offer the subject prior to 1860. During the period after the Civil War, owing to the vast changes that took place in industry and to the many economic problems that were brought about by the rise of "big business," an increasing number of schools offered courses in political economy. The subject, however, was taught in an abstract manner; little attention was given to making it functional in any way. Generally, it was a dry, tedious study of theory. In fact, condensations of John Stuart Mill's *Principles of Political Economy* were frequently used as texts in the schools where the subject was offered. By the close of the nineteenth century, the most widely used texts were such books as F. A. Walker's *First Lessons in Political Economy* and J. L. Laughlin's *Elements of Political Economy.* Among the reference books used in the few cases where they were required were the works of Adam Smith, John Stuart Mill, R. T. Ely, and Alfred Marshall.

Changes in the Content of Economics in the Schools.—The late nineteenth century and early twentieth century brought changed views regarding the teaching of the subject in secondary schools. The term "political economy" became "economics," which clearly signifies the transition in the approach to the subject. More and more attention was paid to economic problems and to the individual implications of the subject, as well as to the social significance of the field. In the period following the First World War, a definite trend became evident. An attempt was made to design high-school courses in economics so as to present in an understandable manner the fundamental principles upon which the economic life of society was based. Increasing stress was placed on the fact that pupils should obtain a better and clearer understanding of the economic aspects of the world in which they found themselves. Since the first part of the century, the teaching of economics in secondary schools has greatly expanded. Naturally, in many other courses, pupils secure some economic information. But in a course devoted entirely to the subject, they can be brought to understand their own economic problems, those existing in their immediate environment, and those which are concerned with the welfare of the society in which they live.

Economics in the Curriculum Today.—A survey of the teaching of economics in secondary schools at the present time will reveal that the subject is in the hands of three groups of instructors. Teachers of commercial subjects include aspects of economics within the scope of business education. Teachers of home economics have appropriated a part of the subject in a treatment of budgetary problems and the education of the consumer. Finally, teachers of the social studies have come to regard the subject as an important one in aiding to prepare pupils directly for citizenship in a democratic society.

The division of power among the three groups of teachers operates against the creation of a uniform policy in teaching economics in secondary schools. Such courses in commercial departments include many subjects from economic geography to cost accounting and business law. The subject in the department of home economics suffers because it makes provision only for women to become educated buyers and consumers. In the social studies, there are many differing ideas as to what economic

materials should be taught, as well as to the aims of teaching the subject and its presentation.

Recent Trends in Teaching Economics.—In recent years, much thought and attention have been given to problems relating to the materials of instruction as well as to the methods of teaching economics in secondary schools. Many administrators and teachers stress a study of economic problems and place increasing emphasis on consumption and the education of the consumer rather than on a concentrated study that would include the three main divisions of production, distribution, and consumption. Many also insist that the value theory be replaced by the concept of social utility.[1]

The Purpose of Economics in the Curriculum.—As in all subjects, it is essential that we know why we place economics in the social-studies curriculum. Our aims must be clear cut. These, of course, must be related to the general aims and objectives of education. In a secondary-school course in economics, it is not enough to attempt to disseminate economic information and to teach economic theory and principles. More than this is necessary. A clear understanding of the most important economic aspects and problems of the society in which the pupil lives should be the first important broad aim in teaching economics. To this should be added a second—that of training pupils to think accurately and critically about economic data and questions. This naturally would involve a study of practice and theory. Finally, the development of such attitudes as fairness in economic relationships, cooperation, conscientiousness, and social-mindedness is not the least of the tasks of the teacher in this field.

These main aims may be divided into the following objectives:

1. To encourage pupils to think for themselves in considering facts and in drawing conclusions.
2. To arouse pupils to the advantages of economic freedom in American democracy.
3. To provide pupils with a general understanding of the production, distribution, and consumption of goods in our society.
4. To help pupils to consider constructively the application of economic principles to the important questions that are before

[1] For this philosophy see J. A. Hobson, *Work and Wealth: A Human Valuation*, New York, 1926.

governmental agencies in order that they may be equipped to understand the truth or falsity of arguments concerning public questions.

5. To aid pupils in understanding what the federal and state governments are attempting to do in alleviating old-age distress and unemployment through a program of social insurance.

6. To provide pupils with occupational information by indicating the advantages and disadvantages of different lines of work and to present materials by which choices of vocations may be considered and perhaps made.

7. To help pupils obtain a well-rounded knowledge of the business world and its functions.

8. To develop in pupils an appreciation of material things and the development of faith in oneself and self-control.

9. To aid pupils to form character habits through continuous emphasis on the necessity for truthfulness, perseverance, alertness, trustfulness, cooperation, and fairness.

10. To help pupils develop tolerance and a spirit of understanding regarding the problems of other peoples so that they will be more willing and able to understand their difficulties and be sympathetic toward them.[2]

Principles for Organizing a Course in Economics.—Given our broad aims and more specific objectives, the question arises as to what these should entail in the field of subject matter. The contents of an economics course will depend on many factors. Among the chief of these are: (1) the amount of economic knowledge that has been learned in previous courses in the social studies, (2) the organization of the entire curriculum of the school system as a conditioning influence, and (3) the factor of local and regional differences.

The Amount of Economic Knowledge Learned Previously.—Obviously, if a fund of factual and descriptive knowledge has been secured in previous courses—either in history or elsewhere—then much introductory material may be omitted in planning the course in economics. More attention can be given to developing an understanding of economic data and to principles, problems, and the development of worth-while attitudes. A survey of what is being done in the whole social-studies curriculum of the

[2] Adapted from M. P. Moffatt and John R. Craf, "Modern Aims in Teaching Economics," *Social Studies*, 30 (December, 1939), pp. 354–355.

secondary school especially is necessary and essential if overlapping and waste are to be avoided and intelligent planning is desired.

The Organization of the Whole Curriculum as a Conditioning Influence.—The course in economics is usually given in the eleventh or twelfth grade, but a survey would reveal that it may be found on any junior- or senior-high-school grade level. The gradation of the social studies in the schools is an important problem still to be solved. Until it is, the proper place of economics in the curriculum and the time to be devoted to it are problems that must be settled in a rather arbitrary manner at the present time. There is much to be done in the reorganization of the school curriculum; and in this process,the status and content of economics will be subject to change. Although usually only one year is devoted to the study of economics in secondary schools, a few enthusiastic teachers of the subject advocate a two-, three-, or even four-year sequence in the field.[3]

The Factor of Local and Regional Differences.—Local and regional differences should occasion modifications in any course of study or in any particular course with the social studies in order to present understanding in regard to particular regional conditions and problems. Thus, in an agricultural section, more time should be devoted to farm problems, production control, methods of marketing, and finance than in an industrial region. It is true that many pupils may leave such a community, but instruction must be shaped for the many who will not. In a business or industrial region, more time should be given to questions of business organization, labor problems, and markets. A consideration of regional differences is imperative if the subject is to be made real and functional.

The Traditional Approach.—A large number of courses in economics, falling within the social-studies curriculum, are at present organized along traditional, or "classical," lines. In this plan of organization, the subject is divided into the fields of production, distribution, and consumption, with a similar emphasis given to each. Sometimes exchange is separated as a field. Government economic functions and other topics are often added. Theory and description are generally, but not always, discussed

[3] See EUGENE B. RILEY, *The Teaching and Supervision of Economics in Secondary Schools*, pp. 223–224, Ann Arbor, Mich., 1935.

independent of each other; and for this reason, critics of secondary-school economics declare that too much theory is being taught. A survey of such courses will reveal that they vary in organization to a considerable extent.

The traditional approach to the teaching of economics usually consists of a well-rounded but often encyclopedic study of economic organization. Stress is generally placed on a logical presentation of the social order. Many teachers are achieving worth-while results in courses based on traditional lines. Precautions must be taken, however, in developing such a course. An economics course that emphasizes formal logic and cold principles is not desirable. Nor, on the other hand, will a detailed description of economic institutions alone result in a realistic approach and achieve the desired aims. The proper relationship of description, theory, principles, history, and problems within the field should be carefully considered and must be worked out in a well-balanced manner. As much as possible, emphasis should be placed on actual phenomena. An interpretation of economic forces and the relation of the pupils to them will create interest and motivate the work. The school must be considered an active social agency, and pupils must take part in the creation of a spirit of social-mindedness and cooperation for the general welfare. There should be no fear in presenting the inefficiency and waste found in economic aspects of society; for if society is to improve its institutions, a recognition of its defects and a desire for improvement are necessary.

The Problem Approach.—The traditional approach may well give way to a consideration of live problems that will achieve the aims and objectives set up. In this approach, no systematic presentation is attempted of the theoretical aspects of production, distribution, consumption, exchange, and other particular topics that are within the range of the economist. Instead, problems that center in a study of the great changes that new economic conditions are making in all aspects of our lives form the basis of the course. This approach has spread rapidly during recent years.

The Importance of Simplifying the Presentation of Problems.—Courses organized on this plan have frequently suffered because problems have not been considered from the viewpoint of the learner; the teacher frequently introduces material in the jargon of the professional economist. The language has often made the

subject unreal to pupils, even though ideas and concepts have not been too difficult. The obvious solution is to take great care in the choice of vocabulary when presenting the various aspects of the subject to the class and in all discussions.

Stating the Problem.—The statement of the problem to be studied may be developed in several different ways. The problem may be drawn up by the pupils individually, and the results worked into a statement cooperatively. It may be stated by the pupils after a study of assigned readings. Or the teacher may formulate and outline it. It is important that pupils accept the problem as their own if they are to study it enthusiastically. In the discussion of it, every effort should be made to keep current issues pertaining to it uppermost in the minds of the pupils and also to develop economic principles through a consideration of current questions. For example, in a consideration of conservation, recent articles on the subject should be consulted, and books like Stuart Chase's *The Tragedy of Waste* or Katherine Glover's *America Begins Again* should be read. After the problem has been studied, conclusions should be drawn, and economic principles applied. The adolescent is not accustomed to draw conclusions from abstract reasoning, especially in this field, but under adequate guidance he is capable of learning how to do so, and much can be achieved. The problem method is of value in showing pupils how to apply abstract principles to concrete situations.

Dangers of the Problem Method.—One of the chief dangers of organizing a course on the basis of problems is that often such courses become only descriptions of a number of complicated problems. Frequently, they result in much wasteful discussion and argumentation. Before there can be any vital discussion, there must be a basis of adequate knowledge and an understanding of the issues involved. Problems that have not been solved by social scientists and other experts cannot be solved in the classroom. However, pupils can be made aware of the various aspects of such problems, and they can be imbued with a desire to aid in their solution. The school must also create a spirit of social cooperation and good will, for these are much needed in the solution of our modern problems.

The Project Approach.—Many teachers believe that the inductive method is the best approach to the subject. Therefore, a

project plan embracing a series of small problems holds favor among some teachers of economics. The budgetary project is usually the introductory one. Budgets regarding household management, for example, are worked out after pupils consult their parents, real-estate agents, insurance agents, merchants, and others as to prices and costs. After the budgets are completed by the members of the class, the totals for clothing, food, and housing may be presented by several pupils and placed on the blackboard for comparison. Questions may be raised regarding the reasonableness of the totals and of average incomes. The findings of all the pupils may be worked into an average budget. Where individual budgets or even the class budget run beyond any practical range, experienced persons or even certain groups might be consulted by the pupils for advice. Problems relating to housing, insurance, and buying may be worked out as part of the budgetary project or may be developed as separate projects.

Projects centering in the tariff provide another illustration of this approach. In an agricultural community, members of a class wrote to their congressmen requesting copies of the Underwood Tariff of 1913, the Fordney-McCumber Tariff of 1922, and the Hawley-Smoot Tariff of 1930. Other pupils made a survey of the commodities and goods produced in the community. The class was then divided into committees, each assigned to a different schedule of the tariff. The teacher acted as "steersman." The next step was to become informed about the various aspects of the tariff, especially as to its influence on what was manufactured and produced in the community. This was done through a study of reference books, reports of the Department of Agriculture, and other materials. After a careful study which included discussions and the presentation of carefully prepared floor talks and class reports, conclusions were drawn, and principles applied.[4]

The Case Method.—Some teachers of economics have used the case method, which partakes of the character of the procedure often employed in college law courses. No formal textbook is used, and emphasis is placed on training the pupil to think independently. Typical cases are given to pupils throughout the term. For example, in order to center study around the principle

[4] G. M. Kilby, "The Tariff as a Project in High School Economics," *High School Teacher*, 9 (September, 1933), pp. 255–256, 258.

of supply and demand, the following example may be given the class: "John Smith, a retail clothing dealer, finds at the end of the season that he has many suits left over. Why may this condition have come about? How could you have remedied it if you had been in his position?"[5]

Reference material in the form of books, magazines, and newspapers would be required in studying such cases. Interviews with businessmen and others might be necessary. A well-kept notebook, of course, would be essential if this approach were used. Under this plan, it seems best to give the pupils an opportunity to study a carefully selected text during the last few weeks of the term in order to bring together the various principles and theories that have been studied. The case method requires an experienced teacher and very careful planning so that the course will include the essential aspects of the subject and will not emphasize one important principle to the disadvantage of another.

Other Approaches.—Almost any approach generally used in the social studies can be utilized in teaching economics. Socialized procedures, supervised study, and laboratory plans may be considered as well as those already discussed. The teacher should decide which procedure is the best one for the particular class that he is teaching. Often the plan may be changed from time to time. In order to accomplish the aims and objectives, it is usually necessary to vary the approach. Regardless of the method used, the organization of the program should be unitary; and as far as possible, materials and activities should be developed on the basis of the unit. Whenever possible, pupils should be grouped according to intellectual abilities, needs, and interests, and the program should make provision not only for the several groups but for every individual in each group.

The Rise of Consumer Economics.—A most significant development of secondary-school economics during the past decade has been in the field of consumer economics. Such courses are given by commercial, home-economics, and social-studies departments. At the present time, there is a decided trend to displace older courses in economics with those which emphasize the consumer aspects of the subject.

[5] J. Lobsenz, "Teaching Economic Theory by the Case Method, *High School Teacher*, 5 (December, 1929), pp. 342–343.

Courses in educating the consumer have arisen out of the need of our times. Prior to the beginning of the world depression in 1929, emphasis in courses in economics was on production, distribution, and exchange. Little effort was made to train pupils in the art of spending wisely and well. It is apparent that there is a definite place in the secondary school for training in intelligent buying. Consumer education aims to train pupils to analyze their needs and to buy those things which they actually require in the best possible way, regardless of attractive advertising and persuasive salesmanship. "Buymanship" is a new word in our educational vocabulary that calls attention to an important phase of education which until recent years has been largely overlooked. It is a type of education of much value in the development and improvement of citizenship.

Types of Courses in Consumer Economics.—An examination of courses in the field of consumer economics will reveal many different approaches. One extreme is found in courses that may be considered highly specialized because pupils are trained to study, analyze, and, whenever possible, make scientific tests of articles such as dentifrices, canned goods, furniture, and household appliances, actually comparing the qualities of individual products by name. This type of course is practical, realistic, and quite popular with pupils. Moreover, it gives good training in the development of the scientific attitude in regard to problems of daily life. Yet such courses may be criticized for their narrowness, for they consider the consumer only as an individual, over-the-counter buyer. They may be also criticized for the assumption that the pupil is a consumer, when actually he is more of a potential consumer, which might lead to the memorization of facts and the preparation of buying guides for the future, a state of mind usually resulting in an academic approach to the subject. Such courses have also led to controversies between teachers and local merchants, especially in small communities.[6] An outline of a course organized on this plan is as follows:

TERM I

Unit 1. The Material Foundations of Modern Life
Unit 2. Fibers, Yarns, and Cloth
Unit 3. Cotton Goods

[6] P. W. MAYNARD, "Teaching Consumer Economics," *Social Studies*, 31 (October, 1940), pp. 257–262.

Unit 4. Linen
Unit 5. Wool
Unit 6. Silk
Unit 7. Man-made Fibers
Unit 8. The Minor Fibers
Unit 9. The Care of All Types of Textiles
Unit 10. Furs

TERM II

Unit 11. Leather
Unit 12. Wood Products
Unit 13. Paper
Unit 14. Rubber
Unit 15. Glass
Unit 16. China
Unit 17. Metals
Unit 18. Gold, Silver and Platinum
Unit 19. Stones (Precious)
Unit 20. Oils
Unit 21. Paints and Varnishes
Unit 22. Cosmetics
Unit 23. Foods
Unit 24. Investments
Unit 25. The Budget[7]

At the other extreme, a special course in consumer economics might include the more traditional aspects of economics, but very definitely from the consumer's viewpoint. Such a course would include not only buymanship but a study of many problems in addition to those connected with buying goods. It is true that this type of course will not devote much attention to the making of individual purchases except by teaching a method of procedure, using only a few products as illustrations. However, it has the advantage of covering many topics relating to human conduct and activities such as consumer credit, housing, insurance, and investment. Such a course when well integrated is realistic and practical. It focuses the attention of the pupil upon major issues that confront the consumer and gives him training in interpreting such information, together with knowledge of the organizations to which he can look for aid and guidance. The following is an example of this type of course:

[7] EDWARD REICH, "The School and the Consumer," *High Points,* 20 (September, 1938), pp. 9–18.

Unit I. The General Problem
- *A.* Standards of Living
- *B.* Factors Which Condition the Standard of Living
- *C.* Obstacles to Freedom of Choice for Consumers

Unit II. Wastes in the Consumers' Dollar
- *A.* Unwise Buying
- *B.* Misrepresentation
- *C.* Competitive Wastes
- *D.* Monopoly
- *E.* Advertising

Unit III. Budgeting
- *A.* Purpose of a Budget
- *B.* Construction of the Budget
- *C.* Engels' Law (reference is made here to a study of family incomes)

Unit IV. The Movement for Standards
- *A.* The Large Manufacturer as a Consumer
- *B.* Impracticability of these Methods for Small Consumers
- *C.* Grading

Unit V. Eliminating the Middleman's Profit
- *A.* The Middleman and the Modern Market
- *B.* Partial Elimination of the Middleman
- *C.* Consumers' Cooperative Movement

Unit VI. The Government and the Consumer
- *A.* Pure Food and Drug Legislation
- *B.* The New Deal and the Consumer
  1. Crop restriction
  2. Price fixing
  3. Monetary policy
- *C.* Taxation and the Consumer
- *D.* New York City Bureau

Unit VII. The Consumer and Credit
- *A.* Peculiarities of Consumer Credit
- *B.* Installment Buying
- *C.* Personal Loans

Unit VIII. Housing
- *A.* History of Housing
- *B.* Present Sub-standard Conditions in Housing
- *C.* A Housing Program
- *D.* Legislative Control over Housing
- *E.* Private Attempts to Construct Low Cost Housing
- *F.* Federal Assistance in Housing
- *G.* Low Cost Housing in Europe

H. Individual Problems of Consumers with Respect to Housing
1. Interpretation of leases
2. Legal rights of tenants
3. Buying or building a house

Unit IX. Life Insurance
A. Social Character and Purpose of Life Insurance
B. Analysis of Existing Insurance Facilities
C. Methods of Selling Insurance
D. Cost of Insurance
E. Insurance as an Investment
F. Extent to Which Insurance Fulfills Its Aims
G. A Program for Improvement

Unit X. The Consumers' Health
A. Private Medicine
B. Group Practice of Medicine
C. Socialized Medicine

Unit XI. The Consumer and Labor
A. Consumer Responsibility for Labor Conditions
B. Methods of Consumer Pressure[8]

A New Approach to Consumer Education.—Suggestions have been made by a few educators for adjusting all phases of the curriculum to emphasize consumption. They point out that the special course in consumer economics can rarely escape artificiality and be other than academic and nothing more than preparatory. Moreover, such courses are taken only by a relatively small percentage of the pupils. Two basic aims in consumer education are: (1) an appreciation of the role of consumer in a profit economy; and (2) wise management of income and the intelligent use of consumer goods and services.[9] The large number of problems arising from these basic aims requires careful planning among all teachers of the elementary school as well as the high school. Such problems must be considered not in a single narrow course but in many subjects and various fields. They therefore demand the serious attention and cooperative efforts of all teachers.[10] Chemistry, mathematics, and the other

[8] Etta Miller and Jules Kolodny, "Consumer Education," *High Points*, 21 (March, 1939), pp. 51–52.

[9] M. W. Tate, "Your Money's Worth in Consumer Education," *American School Board Journal*, 99 (September, 1939), pp. 21–22.

[10] Henry Harap, *The Education of the Consumer: A Study of Curriculum Material*, New York, 1924.

subjects may well be presented from the consumer approach. In fact, a few educators have suggested an integrated course in consumer education which would include aspects of biology, physics, chemistry, and home economics.

Aids to Teaching Economics.—Among the means of initiating and continuing interest as well as making the work of the course real are trips to farms, business houses, factories, and other places to which pupils do not have ready access. If the group is too large, a committee may be appointed to report to the class after such a visit. Oral and written reports should be required of all those who participate in these activities. Business and civic leaders may be invited to speak at regular classes, not only to present viewpoints from outside the school but also to make the subject practical, as well as to make such leaders aware of the fact that school is doing all that is possible to keep pupils abreast of the times. Such leaders are likely to become more interested in their support of the school program; and at the same time, the contacts made between them and the pupils may be beneficial, especially after the pupils graduate. Visual aids in form of pictures, cartoons, and graphical presentations of statistics and principles cannot be neglected in a study of economics. Motion pictures, still films, and slides can be used occasionally to advantage. Concrete learning situations must continually be developed. This can often be done, for example, through imaginary transactions in buying and selling commodities and real estate to illustrate economic principles and theory. Only by using all the available aids can the course be made functional.

The Use of Free Pamphlets and Booklets.—Frequently, teachers who lack adequate library facilities or who desire supplementary materials for carefully developed units obtain for class distribution and discussion pamphlets, booklets, and other materials which trade associations and commercial firms supply free and in liberal quantities. Much of this material is of a biased and misleading nature, often intended as propaganda. In a recent survey of commercial booklets used in many schools, it was shown that of those studied, 37 per cent contained false statements, 43 per cent included unsubstantiated statements, and 59 per cent misleading statements.[11]

[11] M. E. Winkelhake, "Advertising from the Standpoint of the Consumer," *Journal of Home Economics*, 29 (February, 1937), pp. 88–92.

In addition to false, unsubstantiated, and misleading statements, such pamphlets often may omit vital information necessary to a well-rounded discussion of the subject. Even the teacher may fail to detect important omissions or errors unless he is an expert on the topic under consideration. Although a small amount of material of this sort is excellently done, extreme care should be taken in its selection if it is to be used in the classroom at all, for the chief aims of consumer economics may be defeated by the introduction and superficial study of such material.

Evaluating the Outcomes in Economics.—A plan for testing the outcomes of any course in economics must be carefully prepared. This must be done in the light of the aims and objectives set up. It should include not only the measurement of the materials understood by pupils but also their ability to read economic data, the uprooting of preconceived economic fallacies, their progress in reasoning and judging, as well as changes in habits and attitudes in this field. The interest of the pupil in economic problems is another outcome of importance, especially when we consider that the main aim of our system of education is the training of intelligent and broad-minded participants in American democracy.

Summary.—The course in economics taught in secondary schools in the nineteenth century was usually called political economy. It was largely a dry, tedious study of economic theory. By the end of the century, changes were beginning to take place that gradually altered the content of the subject and made it more functional. Increasing stress was given to economic problems, to the individual implications of the subject, and to the social significance of the field.

Among the chief aims of the economics today, a clear understanding of the economic aspects of society should be the first. To think accurately and critically about economic problems and data is a second important aim. Still another treats the development of such attitudes as fairness in economic relationships, cooperation, conscientiousness, and social-mindedness. These broad aims should be analyzed into a number of objectives. The contents of a course in economics will depend on many factors. Among these are (1) the amount of economic knowledge that has been learned in previous courses, (2) the organization of the entire curriculum, and (3) local and regional differences.

Many approaches to the subject may be used. The traditional, or "classical," approach usually consists of a well-rounded but encyclopedic study of economic organization. The problem approach is used in many curricula and is in accord with the recent general trend to emphasize modern problems in the social studies. The project approach has an advantage in motivating the work and in its inductive method of presentation. The case method has been used in a few schools but is usually a difficult approach for the high-school level. Almost any recognized procedure may be applied to organizing and teaching economics.

A most significant development of secondary-school economics in recent years has been in the field of consumer economics. Such courses are often given by commercial, home-economics, and social-studies departments and have arisen out of the needs resulting from the depression. The term "buymanship" calls attention to an important but hitherto neglected phase of education. Courses in consumer economics vary from highly specialized ones in which the pupil studies different products and articles to courses organized on the more traditional lines of economics but very definitely from the consumer's viewpoint. The latter organization has the advantage of covering many important topics relating to human activities and not only to intelligent buying. A few educators suggest that all phases and all subjects of the curriculum should be adjusted to emphasize consumption.

A wealth of aids can be introduced into economics courses regardless of the approach used. Excursions and trips can be made; public speakers may be invited to the classroom; and a variety of visual aids should be utilized. Care must be taken in the use of pamphlets and booklets that can be obtained free from commercial firms, for frequently they are biased and misleading. In conclusion, a very important aspect of organizing a course in economics should be the appraisement of the course, especially in the light of the achievement of aims and objectives.

Questions

1. Trace briefly the teaching of economics in the secondary schools of the United States.
2. Discuss recent trends in the materials of instruction in secondary-school courses in economics.
3. Outline the most important aims and objectives in teaching economics.

4. What principles should be taken into consideration in organizing courses in economics?
5. Outline the following approaches: (*a*) traditional, (*b*) problem, (*c*) project, (*d*) case method.
6. Show why courses in consumer economics have become important.
7. Discuss the different types of courses in consumer economics.
8. Can you suggest certain ways by which the entire curriculum could be adjusted to emphasize consumption?
9. What aids do you feel are the most important in teaching economics?
10. How may the outcomes be appraised in the course of economics?

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MAR

CHAPTER XI

SOCIOLOGY

Sociology Defined.—Sociology, one of the more recent of the social studies to be introduced into the secondary schools, is probably the most difficult to define. No one definition is universally agreed upon. The one most commonly accepted at present is that sociology is the study of society. The word "society" is used to generalize those social experiences which are always present when people live together and associate in various activities. In other words, what we call "society" is something that has developed from human experience that gives a man a better chance of survival, a somewhat easier life, and more satisfactions than he could possibly obtain if he were to try to live in isolation.

Sociology, then, is the scientific study of society, which seeks to explain the origin, growth, functioning, and shortcomings of group life. It deals with group behavior, the relationships among men, and the things entering into and ensuing from these relationships. It has developed because of man's desire to know what has happened in the past and why and how this knowledge of what has resulted from these associations can be advantageously used in the future, as well as in conserving what man has already secured. In this respect, sociology deals with human values, and it should help to broaden, deepen, and make more interesting a pupil's social relationships and strengthen in him the desire to deal sympathetically, understandingly, helpfully, and justly with his fellow men.

The Need for a Course in Sociology.—It becomes more and more obvious that the American people are faced with the need for making vital, far-reaching decisions in the near future regarding many phases of their economic, political, religious, and cultural life which are now clearly in the process of transition. It is, therefore, very important as well as necessary that the American people be well informed as to the realities, tensions, and

problems producing these changes as well as those which grow out of them. To be well informed, they should know something of the ideals, traditions, and experiences of people in other places and in other ages. They should also be in possession of as many of the facts of the present situation as possible so that all of their choices may be made intelligently and according to the ideals of American democracy.

Sociology, in conjunction with the other social studies—especially history, civics, government, and economics—should be taught if we are to equip our young people with an understanding of people and events, if we wish to prepare them to live intelligently and successfully with others, and if they are to be trained to meet without disaster the conflicts and tensions of modern society. The study of sociology should also aim toward helping them develop those attitudes of self-reliance, tolerance, and humaneness which characterize the well-educated man. In other words, sociology should give to each pupil the widest possible knowledge and understanding of historical and contemporary society, to the end that he may take his place amid the confusion of our times and participate with reason and cooperation in community life.

Sociology: Its Place and Value in Secondary Education.—The status of sociology as a separate course is still somewhat uncertain in many secondary schools. It has made its way into many schools, sometimes as an elective course in one or both of the last two years of high school.

The term "sociology" dates back to 1838 when it was first used by Auguste Comte, although aspects of the subject can be traced back through Montesquieu and Condorcet to the Greek period of Pythagoras and Thales. Montesquieu's *Spirit of the Laws* was a positive contribution to the field of sociology; and although there were many errors in it and much that arose from pure speculation, it did serve to make more certain the assumptions advanced by Plato in *The Laws* and by Aristotle in *The Politics*, namely, that topography, soil, and climate affect behavior and are factors in shaping institutions.[1]

The introduction of courses in sociology into the secondary school came at the end of the nineteenth century. Not until

[1] For a more detailed account see Edgar Dawson and Others, *Teaching the Social Studies*, New York, 1927, pp. 235–254.

the period of the First World War, however, did such courses gain favor when an increasing number of schools began to offer the subject. Today, sociology is an accepted field, and its inclusion in the secondary-school curriculum is quite general. Many still feel that it does not assume its rightful place because of the very limited amount of time allotted to it in most schools—usually only one semester in the twelfth grade and often only as an elective.

Common Criticisms of the Teaching of Sociology in High Schools.—The teaching of sociology as a separate subject has brought forth many criticisms in the past to which the thoughtful social-studies teacher should give careful attention. Frequently, and usually with a great deal of truth, it has been pointed out that a rather depressing tendency appears among those who teach sociology to direct the pupils' attention to the pathological facts about the degenerate elements in our civilization. In such cases, too much stress has been laid on the abnormal aspects of society. This has not been conducive to the building of wholesome attitudes in adolescents toward their opportunities and obligations as present participants and as future citizens in that social order. The subject should develop a constructive philosophy of life, one leading to a desire to participate in community activities and enterprises. However, it seems often to have been perverted in schools by discussions and arguments about social evils, just as history in the past has often been confined to the teaching of military exploits and the rule of kings.

A second justified criticism has been made to the effect that the way in which the subject is usually taught makes it academic and bookish, with little or no first-hand contact with the problems under consideration. The textbooks upon which teachers have relied have too often been poor and unsuitable for giving adequate vicarious experiences. In such cases, the courses have had but scant regard for a pupil's reading ability, his social experiences, or his interests; thus the work has not been productive of the results expected or hoped for.

A third serious indictment has been that many of the teachers were poorly equipped and trained to teach the subject. It has been contended, and rightly so, that before sociology can be well taught a teacher of somewhat unusual qualities is needed—a person of broad education and experience, deeply interested in

people and current issues and well informed as to the principal trends in society throughout the world. The teachers who so often taught sociology, the critics said, were seldom qualified on these bases to teach the subject.

Efforts to Allay These Criticisms.—In part, the basis for these criticisms has disappeared. Much less stress is being given to maladjustments in society, although some thought and study of these necessarily must be a part of such a course. More and more emphasis is being put upon the normal, wholesome, valued aspects of group living, with the result that pupils are developing a sounder approach to social problems instead of one characterized by cynicism and fatalism.

Textbooks have been improved as to both format and content. The work of the class is often vitalized by supplementing the textbook with current periodicals, pamphlets, and newspapers. Trips to various social and industrial sections are more frequently a part of the work, thereby placing the pupils in actual contact with the situations about which they are studying. There is still a great need to go further in these respects and to locate and use other visual materials such as motion pictures. An important step in this direction has been taken by the Commission on Human Relations of the Progressive Education Association. This group has been experimenting with excerpts taken from full-length, commercial films. These short sections have been selected because they pose quite vividly a social problem, for example, the lynching scene from *Fury* or the anti-racial prejudice from *Black Legion.* They do not "solve" the problem in typical Hollywood fashion; they merely portray an intense social problem for the purpose of stimulating discussion. This is a development in visual education that should be watched closely by social-studies teachers, for the results so far have shown it to be a very effective technique.

The use of the radio could and should play a larger part in teaching sociology. Edgar Dale and his associates, working at Ohio State University, are doing a great deal to make the radio a more valuable adjunct to the classroom equipment and procedures.

The area in which the greatest need for improvement still exists is in the training of the teachers who are to teach sociology. The prospective teacher's first obligation is to become, as far as

possible, a sane, cultivated personality himself. He should have a well-rounded training in the arts and sciences; be well versed in American history, in political science, in government, and in economics; and have a working knowledge of the tradition and underlying assumptions of American democracy. He should be informed as to the political and economic developments of Europe over the past century as well as with those changes which are taking place today. His knowledge ought to include information concerning the major social issues and problems with which America is faced today. In other words, the teacher of sociology should have the ability for wide, accurate observation; a quick, intelligent sympathy; and the ability for clear, calm thought. He should try to have some first-hand knowledge of individuals or groups, such as criminals, radicals, hungry slum dwellers, as well as political leaders, manufacturers and businessmen. Graduate study, travel, activity in community organizations, participation in politics, and marriage should be a part of the educational experiences by which a teacher prepares himself for the effective teaching of sociology.

Objectives.—The objectives of a course in sociology should be consistent with and contribute to the general objectives of education. In order to make the school experiences as valuable as possible to each pupil, leading him to better living, the school program must afford, among other things, an unlimited opportunity for each boy and girl to develop an interest in and an ability to read and to think about the contemporary social issues, to observe and analyze the functions of government and other social institutions, and, above all, to acquire the habit and skill in critical evaluation of individual and group practices. It should help the pupil to recognize the values of what has gone before and yet be fully aware of the insistent demands for change in this complex, chaotic world. This means, among other things, that young people must be equipped with more desirable attitudes toward the present world of affairs and must develop a conviction that it is an inescapable duty to participate in the constructive solution of the many difficult social problems. Toward these general educational objectives sociology can and should make many definite, valuable contributions.

More specifically, the study of sociology should help each pupil to:

1. Develop a social sensitivity—that is, it should help him become more intelligently aware of the problems of society and create within him a desire to work toward the solution of these.

2. Realize that all social phenomena are natural and can be studied in a scientific way. This means that in facing any personal or social problem, the individual should clearly define that with which he is faced. Then, after formulating possible courses of action, he should gather all the facts available that pertain to the problem. A careful study of these will enable him to reach a tentative decision as to the best policy or course to pursue. Finally, this decision must be tested in the light of the consequences that follow from acting upon it, and the pattern reconstructed on the basis of this experience.

3. Learn to know and to use sources of information such as the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*, encyclopedias, the card catalogue, the index and the table of contents of books, almanacs, and the like for obtaining information needed for the solution of personal and social problems.

4. Do his work and thinking carefully, accurately, and thoroughly.

5. Gain a better understanding of the present-day world, its values, and tensions.

6. Gain a clearer comprehension of the movements of social forces.

7. Become better citizens. The youth of American schools will very shortly be called upon to make decisions of all kinds on momentous questions. They must be able to see all sides of all questions and form intelligent opinions and make these opinions effective through wise, sane, constructive social action.

The amount of time or the degree to which the work in sociology will be directed toward any or all of these objectives will depend upon the needs of the group with whom the teacher is working. There may be other aims not stated that should direct the activities of a given group. In any case, the objectives for a particular course should be determined by the needs, interests, past experiences, strengths, and limitations of the pupils who compose the group, as well as by the needs of the community of which they are a part.

General Concepts around Which the Course Should Be Organized.—The sociological field is a broad one and offers much

opportunity to the discriminating teacher to choose carefully the work or the areas to be studied. There are certain underlying generalizations, principles, and knowledge that need to be emphasized, however, no matter what the particular problems a group may be studying. The more important of these should be stressed.

For one thing, the pupil should become more intelligently and accurately informed about certain of our basic institutions: the family, community, school, church, press, labor unions, industrial organizations, and the like. He should learn of their origin and subsequent development, including, of course, their present status and trends. He should also look into their special values and limitations.

The teacher should help his pupils to a greater understanding and appreciation of what is finest in our culture, without minimizing, however, a study of those things which stand in need of change or of a fundamental redirection.

The pupil should also come to a more accurate comprehension of the nature of culture and the means by which culture is changed. He should, for example, understand the meaning of such terms as "cultural diffusion," "cultural pattern," "cultural lag," "social heritage," "material and nonmaterial aspects of a culture," "public opinion," "social control," "social planning," "folkways," "mores," "vested interests," and "customs." By clarifying these terms with examples drawn from primitive and modern society, the idea of the principle of continuity should be made clear to the pupil. That is, he will learn that human institutions are never static but are always in the process of changing, that no event is without its cause and none without its effect. He will come to see that pain is the greatest critic of our habits, personal and group, and that reforms come slowly in response to the pressure of group opinion. The pupil should also come to realize that no institution ever reaches final or perfect form, and he should therefore understand the need for the constant appraisal of its effectiveness in meeting human needs.

Another basic principle that the pupil should study is the role of the government and legislative action in bringing about social change.

Then, too, the pupil should have an opportunity to study social theories, philosophies, and programs. If we are to prepare

our pupils for their adult responsibilities, they must not leave the secondary schools without having had ample opportunity and guidance in the study of the leading social programs of our times. The program of the Nazis and the Fascists has revolutionized Europe and threatens to force changes in the status quo throughout the rest of the world. The Townsendites, the "Ham-and-egg" group, and other share-the-wealth programs have received serious consideration by many people in the United States. These and many other plans for dealing with the problems and contradictions of our industrial order are increasingly discussed in print, on the platform, and by people in general.

The sociology teacher has as one of his primary obligations the preparation of his pupils to resist slogans and catchwords of all kinds. He must help his pupils gain a cautious attitude toward all generalizations. His pupils should habitually ask the meaning of words, challenge basic assumptions, and determine whether or not conclusions logically follow the arguments set forth in any discussion.

In examining these various programs, the teacher should not take unto himself the role of chief critic or believe that his greatest contribution can come through mere denouncement. His responsibility is to help the pupils examine such new ideas calmly and with as little prejudice as possible. Such programs are often produced by able critics of our present social order who have been trying to find a method for improving society; as such, their ideas deserve a fairer hearing than is usually given in the short paragraphs of most textbooks.

In studies of this sort, teachers are often asked by their pupils for a definite statement of their beliefs and opinions. This results in the danger that the teacher may take advantage of his position to foist on the group his own opinions and prejudices. Teachers of sociology should always refrain from a dogmatic attitude, no matter how definite their convictions may be. The conscientious teacher will try to give a fair consideration to all sides of a question. He should be particularly adverse to making snap judgments and facile condemnations.

In addition, and regardless of what problem is under consideration, pupils should be brought to see what the interrelated factors are that are jointly operative in making and in the continuous remaking of a culture. Broadly speaking, these fall into three major divisions:

1. *Biological.*—In this aspect of study, man is viewed as a biological organism, a very complex mental and physical unit with inner appetites and desires that can be satisfied by using the resources of his social and geographic environment. It is, therefore, necessary to include in courses in sociology some study of heredity and the arguments of the eugenists. Some time is usually given to a consideration of the doctrine of organic evolution, of selection, and of variation. Pupils should be brought to a better understanding of the role that instinctive tendencies, habits, feelings, and intelligence play or might play in human behavior. In this connection, too, they might study and discuss the role of heredity and environment in producing individual differences of all kinds. Perhaps it should be pointed out to them that an individual's biological equipment both gives him the capacity for social behavior and sets limits upon what he can do. The form of the individual's behavior, however, is determined not so much by his biological equipment as by the culture that he assimilates in the course of his social life.

2. *Geographic.*—As used here, the term means all the world of nature, with the exception of man's own body, beginning with the ground upon which he walks and the air that he breathes and extending to the most distant reaches of the physical universe.

It seems absolutely essential that somewhere in their schooling, pupils should acquire a better understanding of the relationship between the physical geography of an individual's or group's environment and the racial character, cultural development, aspects of population, health, occupations, home life, education, religion, and government that develop or exist.

Then, too, a pupil should come to realize that "environment furnishes the builders of cultural structures with bricks and mortar, but it does not furnish the architects' plans," nor does it furnish or determine the purposes for which the cultural structures are to be used. These depend upon the human mind and spirit, and man's rise has been marked by the conquest of mind over matter.

3. *Social.*—By this is meant those phenomena which grow out of the group life of man. It should include a study of the various phases and factors of social control, such as folkways, mores, taboos, and legislative enactments. It should make clear the stimulating effect of men in association with one another, the

processes and relationships that exist among the citizens of a group, and the influence of the social heritage and culture of the group.

The social factors increase in their importance as man becomes more civilized and learns to master the geographic and biological factors of social life.

In other words, no matter what particular problems are taken up with a group of pupils, each should come away with certain basic understandings that will help him meet more intelligently his responsibilities as a citizen in a democratic state. Stated a little differently, he should come to realize that each individual is largely the product of his cultural heritage, that the terms "backward" and "advanced" refer to culture and not to race, and that the better the cultural environment the more chance each individual has for fulfilling his potentialities and contributing satisfyingly to the life of the group. He can be helped to realize that social problems arise when lags or maladjustments appear between various aspects of a given culture. Social disorder and chaos are less terrifying when viewed as the sum of a great many separate maladjustments, each of which can be attacked separately. This points, of course, to the folly of believing that any one social program can solve all or most of our problems. It should aid the pupil better to appreciate that social control of whatever kind should not be carried out in the interest of a small group but in the interests of all.

Making the Choice of Materials and Experiences for High-school Sociology.—As to the question of what should be included, it is difficult to determine except in a general way when dealing with this problem apart from a definite group of pupils. One thing is certain—in the secondary school, it is advisable to concentrate on a few of the major problems rather than attempt to cover the whole range of social phenomena. Subjects should be selected that have a direct, vital appeal and interest to the pupils as well as to the community of which they are a part.

It also seems advisable not to include much sociological theory at the secondary level. Pupils at this age are, as a rule, much more interested in concrete problems than in vague, theoretical discussions. They want to know the facts, to see their relationship, and to understand them. It seems much better to give them the facts and teach them how to find them than to encourage

them to build up a host of abstract theory, much of which will be meaningless because it goes so far beyond their experiences. Facts are needed in analyzing social problems and in formulating social action. Hence, an emphasis on acquiring specific data of all kinds will help the pupil in preparation for assuming one of the primary responsibilities of intelligent citizenship. Given the facts, they will form their own theories if and when they are needed, or they will be better able to appreciate and understand the theories of others.

Careful attention should be given to the historical background of each problem, although the original study of it will probably begin with its modern setting. A thorough understanding of each problem can be gained only through an analysis of the conditions that gave rise to it and of the different stages in the development of the issue. Only by tracing its development can pupils come to a clearer understanding of its present status and of the necessary steps to accomplish further desired ends. Such a study should bring out the causal relationships between the different parts of the problem, also the interrelationships and the close causal relationship between various social problems.

At the secondary level, it seems wise to begin the study of sociology with a consideration of the groups with whom the pupils are already somewhat familiar. The family, the neighborhood, or the community is a good point at which to begin, because each offers opportunities for direct observation and "case study." Each illustrates, moreover, the workings of the biological, geographical, and social factors that act as determiners of cultural development and traits. If this is done, the whole course will be given concrete reality. In this way, too, the pupil will see that the essential principles of human relations are common to all human groups, from the family to humanity at large. Sociology must be connected with life, else it becomes thin, verbal, and abstract in character.

Illustrative materials should be used freely, especially such as would tie up with the local community and with the present time. The pupil, in his work and in his discussions, should be helped to use the inductive, statistical, historical method in studying these problems. In other words, he should begin with the facts, gather all the data possible, arrange and classify

these, and then give special attention to the interpretation of the facts.

A word of caution may be appropriate. Sociology must not be thought of as *the* social science. It is merely one division in a large field of study. Each of the social studies deals with man's social experience and is merely one way of looking at it from a different point of view. The sociologist studies the structures and processes of the social life as a whole, however, and in this respect uses a somewhat different approach from that of the other social sciences. He tends to cross subject-matter boundary lines oftener in his efforts to explain or understand social phenomena.

Plans of Organization.—As in the teaching of any subject, there are various plans for organizing and presenting the materials effectively. The teacher's responsibility is to select the method or aspects of several methods that enable him to meet best the needs of his particular group. Several suggestions seem appropriate, however.

The first has to do with the content of the course. In selecting the materials of instruction, the teacher, with the help of the pupils, should make a tentative selection of the problems about which social understandings seem desirable. This does not mean catering to the whims and immature judgments of youth. It does make it necessary for the teacher to guide wisely the thinking and the choices of the pupils rather than arbitrarily imposing upon them a predetermined course. In this connection, two questions may be asked: (1) What are the persistent social problems that mankind has faced? (2) What contemporary social problems are of unique importance and great interest to the pupils and to the community in which they live?

Among the more important of these problems today might be listed the development of a pleasing personality, the changing family life in America, employer-employee relations, crime, race relations, housing, health, shifting and changing population trends, social-service work, recreation, education, religion, poverty and dependency social security, social planning, and many others.

After a tentative list of problems has been formulated, the group should determine, again on a tentative basis, the sequence in which these problems are to be studied. This is important;

for if the sequence arrangement is not carefully worked out, the boys and girls, at the end of the year, may see little connection among the problems studied, and may feel that their course has been spotty and superficial. To the thoughtful teacher, at least two important questions will arise at this point: Should the sequence be determined by the logical relationship of the problems or by the dominating interest of the boys and girls at the end of each unit studied or project undertaken? No dogmatic answer to this can be given; it must be answered in terms of a specific group at a definite time. The second question is: How will the difference in the maturity level of the group affect the study of a problem? Is the problem too far removed from the experience of most of the pupils to be effectively studied by them at this time? Will the intervening experiences arising from the consideration of certain other problems give them the background for the profitable perusal of this problem? Should the study of this be postponed entirely? These and other questions are extremely important in determining the organization and sequence of the work. Primary points to be considered in all unit planning are the interests, the abilities, and the previous experiences of the pupils in the class and the availability of materials that will aid in attaining the objectives of the unit.

Then, too, in organizing the materials, the problems or units should not be too broad or too all-inclusive. The larger problems should be broken down into their various elements, parts that are important to the major problem and that are also related to the pupils' daily life and experiences and about which he needs instruction. For example, instead of such a broad topic as "The Family," it might be discussed as a series of smaller, more concrete issues, such as "The Functions of the Family," "Recent Changes in American Family Life," or "The Problem of Divorce."

Finally, the teacher and pupils cooperatively should make a tentative plan or plans for developing the units.

Methods of Presentation and Study.—There are many ways of presenting sociological materials for class study. Discussion will perhaps be the method chiefly used by the well-qualified teacher in the classroom. His role is to guide the work, correct fallacies, restrain prejudices, round out arguments, and provide the final summary and interpretations.

For one topic, the study may well be confined to the materials of the textbook. In this case, an outline can be developed to guide the thinking and study of the group as they read the text and such collateral reading as may prove helpful. The following is a suggested outline for such a topic:

POVERTY

I. Classification
   A. Dependents
   B. Defectives
   C. Delinquents
II. Causes
   A. Physical
   B. Individual
   C. Social
III. Remedies
   A. Education for the poor
   B. Controlled immigration
   C. Wiser philanthropy
   D. Reforms
IV. Suggested readings

For the study of another topic, the class might be given a preliminary survey of the problem and then divide to work individually or in groups on aspects of it in which they are interested. In such cases, a time is set for reports from these individuals or groups, and the problem is then summarized by the chairman of the group or by the teacher. For example, the large problem might be crime. Perhaps the topic could be introduced by a discussion of kinds of crime and the extent and cost of crime in the United States. Then a series of topics could be listed that bears upon this general problem, such as "Causes of Crime," "Changes in the Form of Crime," "Attitudes toward Crime and Criminals," "Methods of Treating Criminals," "Preventive Measures." These subtopics might be further divided, and the members of the class could then select the topic that they wished to investigate and report on. These reports could be given in any one of several different ways.

Using still another method, a problem might be most profitably studied through a series of field trips and interviews with authorities, supplemented by reading and other experiences.

In planning such field trips or educational excursions, several things should characterize the planning in order to make them most profitable and to keep them from the realm of haphazard sight-seeing or "slumming" expeditions.

1. Precise, detailed plans should be made in advance for all phases of each trip, even though all eventualities cannot be foreseen.

2. The commonplace as well as the unusual should be observed and studied; otherwise the unusual aspects of life are studied out of context and thereby lose part of their meaning.

3. The trip should have unity. All that is to be observed should bear upon the problems at hand. So often the mistake is made of including too much to be seen, some of it often having little relevance to the main problem.

4. Sights and trips should be suitable to the age level, the interests, and the ability of the group.

Obviously the teacher should know from previous contact the places to be visited. The pupils should be carefully motivated for the trip so that they are interested, even excited, by the prospect of it and know what to look for as they go about. If possible, each pupil should have a copy of the itinerary so that the "mechanics" of the trip become secondary to the purposes for which it is taken.

To make the trip most effective, there should always be a carefully planned follow-up by means of discussions, reports, or by some other method after the class has made it. For example, suppose that the topic under discussion is "Economic Levels of Living." A trip could be carefully planned by which to bring the pupils into first-hand contact with the various aspects of this problem. Observations might be made of such things as the following: middle-class suburban homes; luxurious city and suburban homes; cooperative apartments; hotels and rooming houses; tenements; resorts of the destitute—"jungles," poor-houses, slums, etc. Following such a trip, there should be an interesting discussion and comparison of what was observed, reactions to different types of living quarters, governmental housing projects, and so on.

In general, it seems wise to begin with a presentation or study of the social problem as it is observable to the pupil, then go to the causes for the problem and then to the suggested remedies,

regardless of which method of organization and presentation is used.

One Example of Knowledge Applied.—In the study of social problems, pupils are often aroused with a desire to "do something about it," and yet the school program so often leaves them with no way to express these inner drives in socially useful ways. This leaves the pupil with a sense of futility and frustration which often negates the beneficial aspects of the study. Whenever possible, the teacher should help his pupils to find socially constructive outlets for this emotional energy.

One good example of this sort has been tried at the Central High School, Chattanooga, Tennessee, in regard to race relationships. The class spent considerable time studying "Interracial Understanding." Several of the very interesting and practical means used to create an atmosphere of better racial understanding within the school and community follow:

1. A conference was held at one of the large city high schools, one of the chief topics being "Better Race Relations." This meeting was attended by some of the outstanding men of both races who took part in the discussions.
2. Some of the pupils in the class had a panel discussion in one of the largest colored high schools in the city. It was attended by 700 colored students, some of whom took part in the discussion.
3. Copies of the publications on race relations (used by the class in its studies) were distributed to the local newspapers in the city. Numerous articles and editorials were written.
4. A group of pupils broadcast over the local broadcasting station.
5. Distinguished citizens of both races visited classes, gave talks, and answered questions from the pupils.
6. Numerous letters were obtained from both white and Negro leaders giving suggestions as to methods of creating better understanding between the races.
7. The antagonistic racial areas of the city were discovered, and means were employed to create a better understanding of those particular sections.
8. Other schools were visited and urged to take up this very important problem in their classes.[2]

[2] J. P. Dyer, "Interracial Understanding," *Social Studies*, 30 (February, 1939), pp. 79–80.

Statistics and Sociology.—In teaching sociology, regardless of which method or combination of methods of organizing and presenting materials is used, the use of statistical materials is an important and often vexing problem to most teachers.[3] In addition to the teaching of certain common statistical concepts, such as the mean, median, and deviation, certain other suggestions can be given as to ways of using some of the more common materials.

One plan sets forth helpful techniques for using some of the very valuable statistical materials found in the reports of the Census Bureau and various state statistical organizations. The suggestions should serve to guide the teachers of sociology in formulating other outlines for the use of such materials:

. . . But too often when one commences to tackle the census reports, the problem of sorting out from the mass of data available those particular items which are of local significance seems so overwhelming that the effort is dropped. . . . After a number of years of experimentation the writer believes he has hit upon an effective solution for both of these problems: (1) an orderly and systematic plan capable of application to the Census Bureau and other statistical data which will alleviate the teacher's feeling of helplessness in collecting the desired statistics; and (2) an assignment plan which satisfactorily guides the student in the use of such materials, forces him to apply the data to his own environment, and makes it easier for him to recognize the significance of the data—yet does not do all of his thinking for him. . . .

The statistical material tabulated from existing sources falls under two classifications: (1) local statistics relating to characteristics of the population; (2) local statistics relating to geographical environment. . . .

I. Local Statistics Relating to Composition and Characteristics of the Population. Under this heading are included the following topics:
   A. Trend of population.
      1. Trend of total population
      2. Trend of males
      3. Trend of females
   B. Trend of birth rate, death rate, and excess of births over deaths

[3] Some excellent material on teaching statistics may be found in Progressive Education Association, *Mathematics in General Education*, Commission on Secondary School Curriculum, pp. 121–137, New York, 1940.

C. Trends of nativity
D. Trend of parentage
E. Citizenship
F. Trend of age
G. Trend of sex
H. Marriedness
I. Illiteracy and school attendance
J. Home ownership
K. Number and size of the families

II. Local Statistics Relating to Geographic Environment. The topics covered are:
A. Latitude and longitude
B. Altitude
C. Temperature data, *i.e.*, ranges, lengths of growing seasons, dates of killing frost, length of frost free season, etc.
D. Rainfall, precipitation, thunder storms, humidity
E. Sunshine, clearness and cloudiness
F. Wind direction and velocity

Assignment for Term Paper on Geographical Characteristics.

Use:
1. The figures given in the study outline.
2. Topics and references on the study sheets and in the auxiliary texts.
3. The auxiliary texts, and the references given below.

Bring out in your writing:
1. All significant figures to illustrate your topics, points, or conclusions.
2. Emphasize comparisons and contrasts between your community and other parts of the world.
3. How geographical conditions in your community actually affect your life.

Procedure for:
1. Topics not found on the study sheets. . . .
2. Topics from the study as above. . . .

Don'ts:
1. Don't use figures without writing a discussion which interprets them. . . .
2. Don't say only the obvious things. . . .
3. Don't wait until the last minute. . . . [4]

[4] For a complete report see the article by P. W. Maynard, "The Use of Local Statistics in High School Courses in Sociology and Social Problems," *Social Studies*, 31 (January, 1940), pp. 22–32.

Sources of Sociological Materials.—The sources of sociological facts are almost as numerous as printed matter itself. Books and periodicals contain much valuable and useful materials.

There are many good textbooks in the field, but all of them must be used with much care and with caution. Among the most pertinent are these: (1) No textbook can be completely up to date; it will have to be supplemented by other materials and experiences; (2) no textbook adequately covers and explains all the relevant data on any social problem; (3) too often textbooks try to cover too much ground, with the result that the treatment of most problems is apt to be sketchy and superficial; (4) the textbook may be written with a definite bias on certain problems.

Good periodicals abound, so that the few suggested below should not be considered an exhaustive list: *Survey Graphic, National Geographic Magazine, Harper's, Magazine,* the *Headline Books* of the Foreign Policy Association, the *Public Affairs Pamphlets, Journal of Educational Sociology,* and *Sociology and Social Research.*

Statistical materials of all sorts, like that found in the *World Almanac* and the *Atlas of American Agriculture* and *Business Week,* offer an invaluable storehouse of information.

Other materials dealing with peoples of other ages and other places, such as J. L. and Barbara Hammond's *The Town Labourer,* J. B. Bury's *History of Greece,* W. J. Durant's *The Life of Greece,* G. A. Hedger's *Introduction to Western Civilization,* J. F. Brown and J. S. Roucek's, *Our Racial and National Minorities,* R. S. and H. M. Lynds' *Middletown* and *Middletown in Transition,* and the President's Research Committee's *Recent Social Trends in the United States,* give interesting insight into many of the problems of sociology.

Biographical materials such as *The Making of an American,* by Jacob Riis, or Edward Bok's *Americanization of Edward Bok* are both abundant and very helpful. Fiction provides an interesting source of materials that illustrate sociological problems. And then, of course, a person trained to observe social phenomena has at hand a never failing source of valuable data and anecdotal materials with which to think and study through social problems.

Evaluation.—In many ways, it is often very difficult to get any valid measurement of a pupil's progress toward certain of

the objectives of sociology. So often the purposes toward which the work is directed are slow to develop, difficult to observe, and even harder to interpret. Some of the changes in the pupils will not mature for several years. This does not give reason, however, for a teacher to be satisfied with the use of pencil-and-paper tests as the sole criterion upon which to judge the growth and development of his pupils.

Written tests, either of the objective or of the essay type, are valuable parts of any evaluation program and should be used as often as necessary to get the truest picture of a pupil's development. In addition to such tests as these, however, there are other means by which observations can and should be made.

The Evaluation Staff of the Progressive Education Association have developed a series of interesting and helpful tests on attitudes, the ability to apply social principles, interests, the ability to apply logical proofs, and the ability to interpret data.

The teacher should carefully observe the pupils' behavior in all types of situations open to him. He should secure, whenever possible, anecdotal records from parents, counselors, friends of the pupil, the student council, and any others who may be able to throw light upon the rate and direction of the pupil's growth.

Then, too, the things that a pupil chooses to read and to write about, his selection of topics to work on and report on, the reports that he gives, his class contributions, the manner in which he approaches new problems, the illustrative materials that he uses, and his own reports on himself—these and many other things can be used to gain insight into the changes taking place in a pupil's way of thinking, his attitudes, and his overt behavior.

Only by a well-formulated, carefully recorded evaluation program can a teacher secure some idea of how effective his work is and where changes in work, methods, materials, experiences, and even the evaluation program itself are needed.

Summary.—Sociology, defined as the scientific study of society, is one of the more recent of the social studies to be introduced into the secondary-school curriculum. It seeks to explain the origin, growth, functioning, and shortcomings of group life. The study of sociology should help pupils to become better informed as to the realities, tensions, and problems with which the country is faced and to learn something of the suggested solutions or remedies for them.

The teaching of sociology in secondary schools has been criticized because of the undue emphasis and stress so often laid on the pathological, degenerate elements and aspects of our society; also because it is academic and bookish, seldom in direct contact with the society about which it teaches; and, further, because many of the teachers of the subject have not been qualified by training to present it.

These criticisms have become less severe as the emphases of the courses were changed and the textbooks improved. Teachers have come to supplement the textbooks by trips, visual aids of all kinds, and the radio. The preparation of many teachers is now deemed more adequate for this very vital subject. Much more needs to be done in all these ways, however, especially in providing more adequate teacher training.

The objectives of the course should be consistent with those of the school and should lead the pupils to a greater social sensitivity, to the realization that social phenomena are natural and can be studied in a scientific way, to the effective use of various sources of information, to develop habits of careful work, to gain a clear understanding of the present-day world and its problems, and to become better citizens.

Without prescribing a definite course, there seem to be certain underlying generalizations, principles, and knowledge, that should be emphasized. Among the more important of these are the following: Pupils should become more intelligently and accurately informed about certain of our basic institutions; they should gain a deeper appreciation of all that is fine in our culture, recognizing, of course, that certain aspects of it are in dire need of change; they should also become informed about the means by which cultural changes are brought about. The pupils should also understand better the important social theories, philosophies, and programs in the modern world and learn to judge statements and arguments concerning them. The study of sociology should also help pupils to comprehend the interrelated factors that are jointly operative in the making and in the continuous remaking of cultures—biological, geographical, and social.

In choosing the materials and experiences of sociological instruction, teachers should select topics that interest and appeal to the pupils and with which they are already somewhat familiar. Facts should be stressed rather than the underlying theories.

Enough of the historical background should be given to show the problem in its proper perspective.

For the most part, the teaching of sociology, which deals with such problems as housing, public health, and population trends, is most effectively done if the pupils are carefully motivated by eliciting their cooperation in all phases of the planning and developing of the units, including the trips that are taken.

The evaluation of the program should go beyond the usual pencil-and-paper tests. Teachers must use whatever means and devices are available in determining their pupils' progress toward all of the objectives of the course.

Questions

1. With what does the study of sociology deal?
2. Why is sociology an important subject for secondary-school pupils to study?
3. What have been some of the more common criticisms of the teaching of sociology, and how are these being allayed?
4. Toward what objectives should the course be directed? Can you add others to those listed?
5. Around what general concepts should the course be planned? Can you add others to those given?
6. Name and discuss briefly the three major divisions that operate jointly in making and remaking cultures.
7. What are some of the bases upon which the choice of materials and experiences should be made?
8. What are some of the more important steps suggested for organizing the materials of the course?
9. Discuss briefly the methods suggested for presenting the materials of the course.
10. If an educational trip is to be most successful, what basic factors must enter into the planning of it?
11. Why are statistics an important part of any course in sociology?
12. What are some of the basic aspects and techniques of any comprehensive evaluation program?

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CHAPTER XII

CURRENT EVENTS

Reasons for the Introduction of Current Events into the Curriculum.—During the past two or three decades, there has been a definite trend toward the teaching of current events in our secondary schools. In most schools, this subject is considered a part of the instruction in history, although occasionally it is taught in connection with English courses. Current events began to find a place in the curriculum of the secondary school just prior to the outbreak of the First World War, but it was that catastrophe which gave the impetus to the introduction of the subject into a large number of schools. The spectacular events of the opening years of the war and the entry of the United States into the conflict brought about a great interest in world affairs on the part of the American people. Americans began to realize their ignorance, not only of international events and happenings but also of the national problems that were before their eyes.

In view of the ignorance about current issues, many regarded the school as failing in its task of teaching pupils to understand the complex world in which they lived. About the same time, the demand was made that all courses of instruction in the schools should be practical and should prove this through their functional values. Many believed that the study of current happenings and problems would aid pupils to understand their political, economic, and social environment and prepare them for useful living. In view of all this, it was not hard for current events to find its way into the curriculum. The teaching of this subject has become contagious, so that today it is endorsed by most educators, included in courses of study all over the country, and required by law in many states.

Problems in the Teaching of Current Events.—Despite the fact that there is an increasing trend toward the study of current events in our schools, the problems connected with the study have not decreased. Such questions as how, when, and where it

should be taught, and also what the subject matter should include, remain vague and undefined to a great degree. Although there is general agreement that the pupil should be able to understand intelligently the problems that face his day and generation, there is no such agreement as to how this may be accomplished.

The Value of Current Events.—From a study of the literature in this field, it is easily seen that there is a wide divergence of viewpoint in regard to the value of the subject. On the one hand, there are those who would make the course in current events the most important one of the entire social-studies program. They regard the present as the period that should be studied because of its practical nature, whereas the past is regarded as little more than the story of dead men, vanished scenes, and bygone incidents. On the other hand, another extreme is reached by a few who have no place at all for current events in the school program. They present apparently legitimate reasons. They claim that it is impossible to study the present without an adequate background of the past. The present is unintelligible until this background is first made clear. The high-school pupil does not have this background of the past sufficiently mastered to undertake the study of current happenings or problems. According to these educators, he should not study current events. Between these two extremes lie many various shades of opinion.

Difficulties in the Study of Current Events.—There are many difficulties and dangers connected with the work in current events in the secondary schools. A study of recent happenings or present-day problems is of little educational value to a pupil unless he has the ability and means of evaluating and criticizing such happenings or problems. Pupils of high-school age have the tendency to accept the words of the printed page as facts. Even though two or more different accounts of the same event might be presented to the pupil, it does not necessarily follow that he will accept the correct one. If he has not been trained in critically evaluating what he reads, he will be influenced in his judgment by his environment, including home, community, and school. It may be doubted if an understanding of some of our problems can be acquired simply by an exhaustive reading of the accounts as presented by our newspapers and magazines. Much more than this is necessary.

Another difficulty in the study of current events lies in its lack of continuity. In history, the pupil is able to see the relation of one event to another and often to recognize their cause and effect relationships. It is hard to do this in current events. The events of today do not often show their relationship one with another. By the time that the causes, results, and relationships of these events are known, they have passed beyond the horizon of present happenings and have become history.

Aims and Objectives.—There is quite a divergence of views in regard to the aims in teaching current events. Among long lists of aims and objectives, the following recur continually and appear to be the most important:

1. To make history vital and real.
2. To enable the pupil to read newspapers and magazines intelligently.
3. To make the pupil realize and understand the major problems of the world in which he is living.

These last two aims are sometimes coupled under the name "better citizenship." It should be noted that the first aim mentioned is entirely different from the other two. Here the study of current events is undertaken entirely for the sake of history. The chief purpose is to make history more interesting and better understood. In the other two aims, the study of current events is an end in itself; and if history enters in, it is only to make clear the current events.

The Place of Current Events in the Curriculum.—In calling attention to the difficulties and problems in teaching current events, it is not necessarily implied that the subject has no place in the curriculum. There is a need for it, but all the difficulties and problems must be considered before allotting it a place in the school program. In addition to the difficulties already stated, it should be emphasized that time is an important element. The curriculum is already overcrowded. How much time should be allotted to current events in view of the importance of other subjects is a question that needs close scrutiny. If all the subjects that various educators say ought to be in the curriculum were required, the secondary-school pupil would not have time to complete half of them. The value of current events, therefore, must be considered in relation to the value of the other subjects taught.

The Appeal to the Interest of the Pupil.—The study of current events is sometimes advocated because it appeals to the interest of the pupil. Many educational fallacies have been advocated under the name of interest. It is exceedingly true that pupil interest is desirable in all subjects; but it does not necessarily follow that because a subject is interesting and the pupils are busily occupied, it is of great educational value. A meaningless game might be interesting and occupy the attention of young people for hours and yet be of very little educational value. In line with this thought is the pupil estimation of certain subjects. In many articles written to justify the teaching of current events, we find statements of pupils favorable to the study of the subject. However, it is well to bear in mind that quite often divergent views are held by different pupils and by different classes.

The Need for Teaching Current Events.—There is, however, a definite need for a study of current events in our schools, and the dangers and difficulties must be regarded not as insurmountable obstacles but rather as measures to be overcome. Taking into consideration the three aims previously mentioned, we must acknowledge that each provides a legitimate use for current events. If an event of the present will better enable us to understand the past, it is well that that event be known. It is also essential that high-school pupils be trained to read newspapers and magazines and to understand the problems of the present. The need to understand the problems of life is more acute today than ever. Life has become more and more complex; and if democracy is to be successful, it is necessary that Americans be familiar with the many problems of the present, if they are to be solved. The problems of world peace, the world court, disarmament, debt revision or cancellation, the tariff, government control, national defense, and many others are ever before us. The settlement of these problems requires critical thinking and unbiased judgment as well as a discriminating electorate and an educated public opinion.

The Importance of Teaching Discrimination in Reading.—It is a fact, worthy of the greatest consideration, that many of our high-school pupils after they leave school will read little more than the newspapers. The schools are attempting to develop a taste in pupils for the better types of literature and are meeting with some success. This is being done largely through courses

in English. Nevertheless, if our pupils after they leave school are going to read chiefly from the newspapers, it is the duty of the school to develop that type of reading to its highest point. It would be interesting to the teacher to find out what the average secondary-school pupil reads in the newspaper. He would undoubtedly find that the comic sheet, sports, stories, and sensational news take precedence and that the worth-while reading is generally ignored. The school has a wonderful opportunity to improve newspaper reading. Pupils can be taught to discriminate properly in their reading, to know what to read, to distinguish between the authentic and the dubious, to differentiate between unbiased and partisan articles, to appraise an editorial policy, and to feel the problems of life that concern them personally. Naturally this implies that the pupils have the ability to evaluate what they read. More will be said later of this. At any rate, the ability to read the newspaper intelligently is a desired outcome in secondary-school education.

The Importance of Studying Present-day Problems.—Whether the newspaper is studied in school or not, it is evident that to produce intelligent citizens it is essential that the pupils become aware of the great problems that face the nation and that they learn to understand them. How to accomplish this is the question. Sometimes the problems can be chosen by the teacher, and a detailed study of them made with the aid of newspaper and magazine. Whatever plan is chosen, a broad historical and social background is necessary on the part of the pupil.

Fitting Current Events into the School Program.—The need for finding a place for current events in the curriculum of the secondary school is evident to most teachers. It is a problem, however, to fit it into the overladen program of the school. There has been much difference of opinion in this regard. Various plans have been submitted and tried. Each of these has its good features but also has its difficulties. Much depends on the aims that the teacher sets up in the teaching of current events. These plans will now be discussed.

Current Events as Supplementary to the Teaching of the Social Studies.—To those who regard the teaching of current events as supplementary to the teaching of history or any of the other social studies and to be used for the vitalizing of these subjects,

the problem is easy. Merely use the current events to illustrate at the most opportune time. For example, in a study of the American Revolution, which in a sense brought a "new deal" to Americans, illustrations may be taken from the New Deal of the present to vivify the changes brought about as a result of the separation from England. The financial and monetary problems facing the country in 1789 may be illustrated with phases of the financial policy of the present. Many examples like these can be used with telling effect. Such a use of current events requires little effort on the part of the pupils, although a teacher can arrange problems of like nature for them to work on that would require a familiarization with modern events.

A Combined Course in History and Current Events.—In a plan that bears much similarity to the preceding one, although there are many differences, we find the events of history worked out with parallel current events wherever possible. The course is divided into a number of units. In each one, a series of current events is planned that has a relationship to the history to be studied. For example, when the period of discovery is studied in American history, many current topics are studied along with it, such as quite recent explorations in South America. In a sense, we may say that for each important phase of history there is a corresponding phase of current events that has a point of similarity to the history studied. The attempt is made to correlate the events of the year with the content of the units of American history. It is not difficult to make this correlation of current events with history, since modern life is full of such comparisons. The demand for complete independence by Ireland, for example, may be studied in conjunction with our fight for independence. The experiment in government in Russia may be studied in connection with our early experiments in government. The nationalistic movement in India, the sectionalism shown in tariff making, the depression, and various other topics can be studied in connection with various phases of past history. Although such a procedure might be interesting and of value to pupils, it is open to criticism. It may be questioned if such a dual aim is worth while in a single course. Again, it might become very confusing to the average pupil, for the continuity of history might be lost in an avalanche of current happenings. In any type of history teaching, it is

of utmost importance that the cause-and-effect relationships be clearly understood. These may be easily lost if the minds of the pupils are constantly thrown in other directions.

Studying Current Events upon a Background of History.—An excellent plan whereby the most important of our current problems may be studied is the one in which history is taken up during the first part of the course, while the latter part of the course is devoted to the investigation of contemporary problems. For example, in a course in American history, a rapid survey is made of the chief movements and developments. This may take from five to six months. The rest of the school year is then devoted to current problems. In this procedure, the pupils are able to study the outstanding problems of present-day life in the light of their historical background. For example, if the current problem of the tariff is taken up, it can be studied in the light of the whole tariff history of the United States.

Contemporary History.—A course in contemporary history has sometimes been advocated for the high school. It can begin with the opening of the twentieth century, or even later, and come right down to the present day. Current problems would, therefore, occupy an important place. One of the chief objections to such a course is the fact that most secondary-school texts do not bring their accounts down to date; and in those that do, the recent period is treated in a cursory manner. The teacher, therefore, must rely on himself to bring the account down to the present.

Current Events and History.—The charge is often made that it is impossible to bring history to date and that events must be seasoned with age before they can be evaluated. It is true that mere happenings in one generation have become historical events to the next. It must be remembered, however, that the one generation does not live in the next. The events of today may be conceived in a different light fifty years from now. But most of us will not be living at that time. It is for us to understand them as intelligently as we can in order to meet our present-day problems. To ignore them will get us nowhere. It is the duty of the school to enable the individual to understand the forces that are affecting his life in the midst of the complex society in which he lives. Of course it is difficult to bring history down to date. There is the tendency to include too much factual

material so that it becomes a conglomeration of meaningless incidents. The field is open for clear thinking and wise planning.

Current Events as a Separate Study.—In all the foregoing plans, it is seen that the teaching of current events is closely correlated with history instruction. Most of the plans today, however, treat the subject separately and apart from history or at least with no correlation between the two. The time allotted to the subject is generally taken from the history period, but to all intents and purposes they are two courses. Many different plans have been tried.

A very few schools have a regular course in current events which lasts throughout a semester and which is on a par with the other subjects of the curriculum. A few schools have one of the courses in history, especially in modern history, shortened by about a month and then have a course in current events for that month. In other schools, a period of five to ten minutes is given from each history lesson or from other lessons to the study of current events. Generally the time is taken from the beginning of the period. Some teachers have no definite time for current events but take the most appropriate time for the study. The usual practice and the one most recommended is to have one period a week given over to the subject. This time is generally taken from the social-studies period. That is to say, the teacher teaches his course four days a week, and on the other day he gives the course of current events. In all the plans mentioned in this paragraph, there is no close correlation between the social studies and the current events taken up. This, of course, does not imply that the pupils do not have some sort of background to evaluate the recent events that they may be studying.

When Should Current Events Be Taught?—Another question that faces us in the discussion of the subject is the number of years that it should be pursued. Should it be reserved for the last year of the high-school period? Opinions vary on the subject. Some think that the average high-school pupil does not have sufficient historical background to evaluate the events until the last year or two of his high-school experience. On the other hand, there are those who would have the subject taught in every year of both the junior and the senior high school. They claim that the pupil even in the lower grades of the high school should be made aware of the vital problems of the civilization in which

he lives and that his understanding of these will grow as his historic perspective grows. It is certain that there are problems that even a seventh-grade pupil can understand and should be familiar with. The whole subject suggests that there may be need for a further revision of the entire social-studies program with the aim of the social efficiency of the pupil the dominant criterion of evaluation.

Methods of Teaching Current Events.—As in all other subjects, there are different ways of teaching current events. Our educational literature is full of various plans and modifications of plans. It would require too much space to go into detail over these various methods in this chapter. However, they all conform more or less to two or three general plans. These plans deal with the subject when it is taught apart from the other social studies or when it has no correlation with them if taught during the same period.

The Individual Assignment.—One of the common procedures is the individual-assignment method. According to this plan, a few of the pupils of the class are each given a different assignment. This assignment may be a newspaper or magazine article or a topic that may entail reading one or more articles or a contemporary problem that requires extensive reading. Sometimes these pupils are required to have written reports on their assignments which may take the form of an outline or a summary. During the class period, each of the pupils assigned a special topic is required to give an oral report on his assignment. The class previously has been made aware of the general ground of all the assignments and instructed to come prepared to discuss the subjects. After each individual has made his report, a general class discussion takes place which is usually conducted by the one making the report. Different individuals are chosen each week to make the reports. There is much to commend this method, as it possesses definiteness and allows for the choice of fruitful subjects. It contains many dangers and disadvantages, however. The pupils not making a report may be tempted to shirk all preparation. A check on this may be made by an occasional short objective test at the beginning of the period. There is also the danger that the one making the report will feel his work completed after the conclusion of his report and pay no attention to the other reports or to their discussion. This can be overcome

by the requirement of a notebook, kept by the pupil, in which each is required to note the important points on each subject. Care must be taken not to have too many topics in a class period. It is essential also that the reports be not too long. The preferable plan is few topics with much discussion. The lesson period should end with a clear understanding by each pupil of the material that has been presented.

The Committee Method.—Another procedure that has been successfully used in many schools is the committee method. In this, the class is divided into committees each of which is responsible for a certain kind of news or for special subjects. All sorts of divisions have been made by different teachers. In one class, four committees were appointed—one on national affairs, one on foreign affairs, another on state affairs, and a fourth on city affairs. According to another plan, the class was divided according to subject. Such subjects were chosen as "The Far East," "Our National Defense," and "Capital and Labor." In another school, the class was organized as a magazine staff. A managing editor was selected; and he in turn appointed editors of different departments, as National Affairs, Internal Affairs, Science, and Literature. These editors selected other pupils to act as reporters for the department. In all these plans, each group or committee got the news of the important events of the week pertaining to its subject and made a brief summary of them in class. Each member of each group brought in his contribution in making up a group report. The committee method is well adapted to large topics or problems, in which each member of the group can take up a phase of the work. This also affords training in cooperation, although the danger that one or two of the group might do all the work is acute here and must be guarded against. Teachers who use this plan emphasize the necessity of class discussion after the reports have been given. The dangers in this method are much the same as in the individual-assignment method. The teacher needs to check carefully the work of the pupils in order to find if they are working and if they are getting an understanding of the events. Members of the various committees should also be changed around, so that each may have an opportunity to work on all the committees.

The Recitation Method.—Most of the other methods are some sort of class recitation, generally of a discussion type. In one

class, a teacher uses a regular weekly magazine as a text and assigns about four articles a week, much like an assignment in a textbook. The discussion then centers around what had been read in the assignment. There is definiteness in such a procedure, and care can be taken in choosing important articles. A check can be made on the pupils' preparation by having them write brief outlines or summaries of the articles or by conducting a short quiz. In another plan, the class follows a very important local, national, or international topic for several weeks. The teacher in this plan suggests the way in which the class organizes the material and lists the articles and the books necessary for an understanding of the topic. It is not hard to find such important topics, for each year brings forth its major problems. In the school year of 1931, the situation in the Far East was significant, especially as it affected the United States. This could profitably have been discussed for many weeks. The war-debt situation was a topic of great significance for the year 1932; the New Deal legislation and activities were preeminent in 1933 and 1934; and the defense program was all-important in 1940 and 1941. The class recitation may be conducted in many different ways. The teacher may ask thought-provoking questions and lead the pupils into fruitful discussion. The socialized recitation, with the teacher very much in the background, can be used to its greatest advantage with such lessons.

In a class in which the aim is to read the newspaper intelligently, the teacher requires each pupil to keep a current-events notebook in which is placed a weekly digest of six to ten important events for each week. The pupils read the daily paper each day in order to select material for their subjects. In the class period, the work of the pupils is compared, and the teacher has excellent opportunity to discuss with the class the importance of the events chosen by each pupil. Under such a scheme, time may be spent in evaluating the reliability of the news and the sources from which it comes. The partisan nature of our newspapers and the opinions reflected in them should also be brought to view.

Current Events as an Extracurricular Activity.—In some schools, current events are studied as an extracurricular activity. Or the subject is taken up in assembly period. Quite often, a current-events club is organized which meets once a week or once every two weeks. Occasionally the history club has a special

day in which current events are discussed. The procedure in the club may be very formal and in accord with parliamentary law. The president would naturally act as the presiding officer. On the other hand, the procedure may be very informal and may take on the aspect of a socialized recitation. Many features may be introduced into the club program, such as debate or the use of the open forum. A special topic can be chosen, and different pupils report on various phases. The meeting would then be thrown open to discussion. In the club, of course, there can be no compulsion except what is exerted by group pressure. However, with so many topics of interest constantly before us, it should not be hard to awaken a keen interest in worth-while topics. The situation in Europe and the Far East is full of interest to high-school pupils if properly presented to them. In our own country, there are problems that will challenge the attention of even the mediocre pupil.

Devices and Aids.—All sorts of devices and aids have been used in giving the study of current events zest and meaning. Attention has been drawn to the use of the notebook by the pupil. Some teachers emphasize this activity and instill into the pupils a pride in the achievement of a worth-while notebook. The scrapbook has been emphasized by others. Clippings of the subject discussed are pasted in the book. Cartoons have been very effectively studied in class. The bulletin board is very important in most current-events classes. In some, the most important current event of each day of the week is decided upon by class discussion, and the clipping of the event is posted on the bulletin board. In other classes, the bulletin board is divided into sections according to news such as local, national, and foreign; and then clippings are hung up under their respective headings.

Sometimes the pupils summarize each important event and write it down on a card. The cards are classified and filed so that the pupil has a cumulative record of the important current events. Some classes keep a clipping file arranged by subjects. Important clippings are cut out and filed. Games and contests have been introduced to give life to the subject. A class may be divided into two sides, and each side ask the other questions. A score is taken of proper questions and correct answers. Pageantry and dramatization are also being used.

The Selection of Reading Material.—One of the problems confronting the teacher of current events is the selection of reading material. The three kinds of material generally used are the newspaper, the weekly magazine, and the monthly magazine. Many pass over the newspaper because its news is too unreliable. The monthly magazine is, of course, the most reliable; but if the subject is taught weekly, the same text must be used over several sessions of the class. Most teachers prefer the weekly magazine. Much depends on the nature of the work to be accomplished. If the weekly periodical is chosen, however, there is a wide choice of magazines. Naturally certain qualities must enter into the choice. Does the magazine possess literary merit and maintain a high quality of English? Are the articles in the magazine long or short? Most teachers prefer short ones. Are they authentic? Is the magazine free from bias or partisanship? Does it contain special helps and lesson plans that the teacher may use? Is it suitable to the age and maturity of the pupils? In actual practice, a wide variety of magazines is used. At the present time, several weekly magazines are published especially for school use in current-events classes. Among the best of these are:

The American Observer. For eleventh and twelfth grades. Civic Education Service, Washington, D. C.

Current Events. For sixth, seventh, and eighth grades. American Education Press, Inc., Columbus, Ohio.

The Junior Review. For junior high schools. Civic Education Service, Washington, D. C.

Junior Scholastic. Scholastic Corporation, New York.

Our Times. For tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. American Education Press, Inc., Columbus, Ohio.

Scholastic. This is a general magazine for use in high-school classes. It is published in four editions: one for social-studies classes; one for English classes; a combined edition of the two; and a teacher's edition. Scholastic Corporation, New York.

The Weekly News Review. For ninth, tenth, and eleventh grades. Civic Education Service, Washington, D. C.

Many teachers prefer using a magazine published for adults. They state that pupils should be trained to read the magazines that they will probably read in later life. The reading in most of these magazines is usually not beyond the abilities of the high-school pupil. Among the weekly magazines of this class are *Time, Newsweek, The New Republic,* and *The Nation.*

In some classes, the monthly magazine is used frequently with the weekly. A few teachers prefer to use the monthly alone, chiefly on account of its greater reliability of news. Among the monthly magazines in use in classrooms is *Current History and Forum.* Others of value in teaching current events include *Asia, The Atlantic Monthly, Contemporary Review, Foreign Affairs, Harper's Magazine, Living Age, Scribner's Commentator,* and *Survey Graphic.*

When the newspaper is taken as the source of material, the teacher generally uses the local paper. However, there are in our country a few newspapers that are more than local in their presentation of national and international news; these may be profitably employed by the teacher. Among the best of these are *The New York Times, The Baltimore Sun,* and *The Christian Science Monitor.*

The Selection of Topics.—Attention has already been called to some of the difficulties and dangers in the teaching of the subject. One of the chief dangers that the teacher must avoid is attempting to cover too wide a field. The time allotted to current events is generally short, and it is therefore unwise to attempt too much. It is infinitely better to come to a thorough understanding of one topic during a class period than to gain a smattering knowledge of a dozen. It is easy for the study of current events to degenerate into nothing more than the acquisition of miscellaneous factual information.

Checking the Work.—Care must be taken in checking the work of the pupil. In some schools, the class in current events is regarded as a sort of relaxation. Thus, little real work is accomplished. Some teachers cover so wide a field that it is hard to check the work, and they soon assume the attitude that it is impossible. Pupils become aware of this and neglect the preparation necessary for good work. The duty of the teacher is to check the work of the pupils and to know just what they are accomplishing. To be sure, attitudes, habits, and ideals cannot be easily checked, yet these do not grow out of nothing. The teacher can check the things out of which the attitudes and ideals may spring.

The Problem of Indoctrination.—Another great danger in teaching current events lies in the tendency of the teacher to propagate his ideas in the evaluation of events. He may take an aggressive stand on many moral issues, but there are many other

problems upon which intelligent division of opinion exists. The teacher must avoid becoming partisan. Problems must be studied apart from his prejudices and passions. All that he can do in such issues is to study the problem from all angles and leave in the mind of the pupil the fact that it is a question for individual consideration. The general problem of indoctrination is one that continually confronts the teacher.

Teaching History Backward.—Closely related to the teaching of current events is the idea of teaching history backward. By this is meant that the present problems are taught and then their relationships are traced to the past. Each problem is therefore related to its historical background and thus set in its proper perspective. For instance, the relationship of the United States with Japan may be studied, and then the relationships traced back into the past. This may seem an excellent plan from a superficial standpoint. It is in accord with some of our educational theories of teaching from the near to the remote and of disregarding the proper chronology. Upon serious consideration, however, it presents many difficulties. The pupil starts out with an event about which he knows little or nothing. He is turned back to prior events that have a causal relationship to the event studied. There may be many of these, and their relationship to each other not plain to the pupil. All these events have other relationships in their past to which the pupil is referred. The pupil, unless he is exceptionally bright, is soon lost in a maze of factual material. In other words, he is proceeding from the complex to the simple; whereas learning is easier when proceeding from the simple to the complex. History is primarily one of cause-and-effect relationships. The effects cannot be evaluated by picking out certain phases of the causes. The whole matter is based on the false premise that the present is always real to the pupil and that the past is always unreal. The fact of the matter is that Andrew Jackson might be just as real to the pupil as Herbert Hoover and the digging of the Panama Canal as the building of Boulder Dam.

The Importance of the Teacher of Current Events.—The importance of the teacher of current events cannot be stressed too much. It is a mistaken idea that anyone can teach the subject. It requires one who is well grounded in the social studies, especially history. In some schools, the teaching of

current events has been given to an English teacher. There is no excuse for this unless the English teacher has a background in the social studies. The teacher of current events must be up to the minute on modern problems and also possess the historical background to evaluate them. Current events must not be taught merely that the pupil may have something to write about or just because the subject is interesting.

In concluding this chapter, it may be well to emphasize again that there is a great need in our schools for making our boys and girls aware of the great problems that are constantly before us and in helping pupils to understand them. There is need to train our pupils in reading the newspaper and magazine and to develop in them a taste and interest in the major problems and issues presented. One thing is evident, however—the problems become significant to the pupil in relation to the historical background that he has to evaluate them. The study of history must be the background for the study of current events.

Summary.—Within recent years, there has been a decided trend to include the subject of current events in the curriculum. Much disagreement, however, has arisen concerning the ways and means of teaching the subject. The introduction of this field into the curriculum raises many problems. The chief of these is that of the ability of the pupils to evaluate properly the events studied. The study of current events may serve several purposes. It may make the history studied more vital, enable the pupil to read newspapers and magazines more intelligently, and give the pupil a greater understanding of the problems of present-day living. Many plans have been used in teaching current events. These depend to some extent on the aim in teaching the subject. If current events are used to vitalize the study of history, they will be introduced at the most appropriate time in connection with the historical events studied. With other aims, various plans may be used. Sometimes we find the subject correlated with history. At other times, it is treated as a separate subject. The importance of the subject warrants the suggestion that current events in some degree should be taught during every year of the junior- and senior-high-school period. The field offers opportunity for group work. The materials of the subject are the newspaper, the weekly journal, and the monthly magazine. Each of these has its advantages. It is

best to use one of the papers published especially for schools. Despite the many difficulties in the subject, there is a vital need of making pupils familiar with our modern-day problems.

Questions

1. Show how the First World War promoted the study of current events in the schools.
2. How did modern trends in education help in finding a place for current events in the curriculum?
3. What are the various viewpoints in regard to the value of the study of current events?
4. What are the difficulties in teaching current events?
5. Give the aims in teaching current events.
6. Choose some current topics, and show how they may be used to vitalize the teaching of historical events.
7. What are the arguments for teaching pupils to read the newspaper intelligently?
8. Enumerate the various ways in which the study of current events may be placed in the curriculum.
9. Should current events be taught in the junior high school? Give reasons for your answer.
10. Name some of the plans that have been devised to teach current events.
11. Name some present-day topics that may form the basis for a course in current events.
12. Mention some aids and devices that may be used to improve the teaching of current events.
13. Evaluate the different kinds of material available for the study of current events.
14. What is the problem of indoctrination?
15. What is the danger in teaching history backward?

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CHAPTER XIII

GEOGRAPHY

Geography in Eighteenth Century Schools.—Geography found a place in the American secondary-school curriculum long before history did. During the late colonial period when little thought was given to teaching history in Latin Grammar Schools and in the rising academies, geography could be found in the curriculum of many schools. During the eighteenth century, the texts were small in size but included material that ranged from accounts of the celestial bodies to descriptions of the subterranean regions of the earth. They contained facts relating to astronomy, geology, meteorology, physiography, climatology, and even botany and zoology. Most of them contained descriptions of the customs of various peoples and touched the fields of religion, government, and history to a slight extent. Generally, the plan of organization was the question-and-answer type, and they were actually "geographical catechisms." The earliest texts came from England; but in 1774 Jedidiah Morse published his *Geography Made Easy,* which went through twenty-five editions and was still in use at the time of the Civil War.

The Evolution of Secondary-school Geography.—During the first decades of the nineteenth century, there was a trend to narrow somewhat the broad range of secondary-school geography from a study of the entire universe to the world and in a few cases to America. Not until after the Civil War, however, were the social aspects of geography considered seriously in any way. By that time, the influence of Pestalozzi was making itself felt in this country, as can be seen in the Oswego movement, and the work of Ritter and Guyot led textbook writers to pay more attention to the idea that the field of geography should be vitally concerned with the relationship between man and his environment.

By the last decade of the nineteenth century, the gaining emphasis on the social aspects of geography gave way to a stress

upon physical geography, which also reflected the results of the research that was taking place in the field of geology. The evolutionary factors of geography found a place in many texts. Throughout this period, another type of textbook appeared which brought out the commercial aspects of geography. Secondary-school textbooks, however, remained largely abstract and statistical. The memorization of many geographical terms was still regarded as essential in teaching the subject. Physical geography was given the chief emphasis, and pupils were required to memorize such details as the boundaries of countries and states, as well as lists of capitals, cities, and important rivers.

It was not until the twentieth century that the work of the social geographers bore fruit in the secondary schools. In many cases, the subject came to be classified as a social science, although many geographers continued to insist that it was entirely or largely a physical science. The social approach to geography is sometimes called human geography. In the view of some writers today, this is the entire field of geography, all other aspects being subordinate to it. Others consider human geography but one branch of the whole field of geography.

The philosophy of John Dewey and his school of thinkers profoundly influenced the new geography. Emphasis came to be placed on the importance of the pupil as a member of society; stress was laid on the relationships and cultures of peoples of different areas and countries; the subject became increasingly an explanation of the reactions between man and his environment instead of an array of facts and definitions; and more attention was paid to the gradation of the field on the different school levels where it was taught. As is evident, the First World War was another influence that aided to shape the new type of geography.

Geography in Junior High Schools Today.—A survey of the teaching of geography in the junior high schools of the United States at the present time will reveal that such courses are taught under many different names. World geography, United States geography, social geography, commercial and economic geography of the world, world production, transportation and consumption, world survey, and modern business geography are some of the titles of geography courses in different schools. A study of the objectives of these courses will reveal that the chief goal is generally a knowledge, understanding, and appreciation

of the likenesses and differences in peoples, their ideas, and their problems in the various sections of the United States and the different regions of the world as related to their natural geographic environment. Studies of the teaching of geography, however, show that this chief aim is not often well achieved.[1]

The only apparent uniformity in the teaching of geography in junior high schools exists in a study of the geography of the United States in the seventh grade. Such a study usually treats the life and activities of the major economic regions of our country and presents their relationship to the work and natural environments of foreign lands. Frequently, this plan is used in courses in world geography. This approach appears to be better organized and stressed than other phases of the field. However, in most junior high schools, geography is little more than a repetition, or at best a continuation, of elementary-school geography.

The Importance of Geography in Junior High Schools.—There can be but little doubt that the early years of adolescence present an excellent opportunity for developing ideas and ideals of world citizenship. It has been pointed out in other parts of this volume that emphasis in the social studies should be placed on social relationships and social integration. If this is true, attention should be given to explain man as a social being and as a member of a complex society—local, national, and world-wide. In order to do this, geography is essential, for its chief function in the schools should be to explain and interpret man's environment and his adjustments to it. Individual and racial traits condition to some extent human actions and the resulting relationships, but the activities and behavior of mankind are also due to natural environmental factors. The importance of using geography in the teaching of history and other social studies has been rightly stressed in recent years. The integrating value of the field is being recognized at the present time. As a separate subject in the social-studies curriculum, geography can also make important contributions to achieve the aims of American education.

Purposes of Teaching Geography.—The chief function of geography in the junior high school should not be the accumula-

[1] See H. HARRISON RUSSELL, "The Status of Geography in the Junior High School," National Society for the Study of Education, *Thirty-second Yearbook,* Chap. XXXI, Bloomington, Ill., 1933.

tion of large amounts of factual information, which are for the most part quickly forgotten, but rather the ability to think geographically. This means a comprehension of human-geographic relationships, which would require the careful selection and relating of materials taking into consideration the background of the pupil, that has been already built up in the elementary school. Thus, a study of geography should not only bring an understanding of how different environments generally determine how peoples must live but, within certain limits, should reveal the effects of environment on the customs and habits as well as the political, economic, social, and cultural life of the people of the different regions of the world. Understanding and wisdom, not prejudice and fear, come from realizing that groups other than our own are not strange but that their customs and ideas fit into the regions where they live. In such a study, however, theoretical extremes which result in controversies between experts should have little place.

Geography can also aid in interpreting many aspects of international relationships. Recent world problems have a geographical setting as well as a historical basis. Disputes over political boundaries have been frequent causes of war; overpopulation in limited regions have brought much strife between nations; and the desire for minerals, metals, or other needed commodities has resulted in continual international conflicts, as, for example, the perpetual struggle for Alsace-Lorraine. An understanding of the problems, natural resources, and handicaps of different nations is necessary if world strife is ever to be eliminated. The interdependence of nations must be stressed, and international attitudes must be developed on the basis of reason rather than emotion.

A most important goal of secondary-school geography should be an understanding of man's use of natural resources, near and far, past and present, as well as whether prudent or wasteful. Although the environment conditions the thinking and activities of man, the latter makes changes to his surroundings, which may or may not result in bringing both into more effective and harmonious relationships. Prairies and desert lands may be changed into garden spots by planned irrigation, but fertile regions and wooded slopes might become arid wastes and desolate areas by the neglect or despoilment of man. A study of what is

being done and what can be done in the interests of the conservation of natural resources in our own country and elsewhere should find an important place in the schools.

In addition to the ability to think geographically, to understand international issues more clearly, to know the problem of conservation of natural resources and their solution, and to develop certain necessary attitudes and desirable personal characteristics, a number of other important goals might be considered. The ones already discussed naturally imply that good citizenship in a democracy will be stressed throughout. This also means the ability to think clearly both independently and as a group which is necessary if democracy is to endure. Geography can furnish opportunities for clear, logical thinking; for efficient planning; and for developing initiative and other traits necessary for good citizenship.

The cultural aim in the study of geography should not be neglected. The subject can contribute to one's enjoyment of the natural elements and the environment. Likewise, it can broaden the pleasure and satisfaction that may be obtained by travel. In addition, a taste for reading books of travel, exploration, and descriptive geography may become a life interest and worth while for the individual, especially in a pursuit of further geographical studies.

In developing skills, geography can contribute much. Among these, the ability to interpret and apply geographic factors that condition life is not the least of the outcomes in this field. The ability to interpret maps, charts, graphs, and diagrams, as well as the development of skills in the making of these, is an illustration of what can be accomplished in the field of geography. Most, if not all, of the goals or aims described here have a very definite place in junior-high-school geography.

Plans of Organization.—Older plans of organizing geography are giving way to newer ones. The increasing emphasis on the philosophy of unitary plans has influenced the teaching of geography in much the same way that it has affected the other social studies. The tendency in the past has been to treat school geography by means of political areas or to divide the field into separate sections, for example, physical, economic, and political. Changes in recent years tend to emphasize an organization on the basis of regions or topical units. Some plans are worked out

on the basis of type geography, although this approach is by no means new in the schools.

The Regional Plan.—An insistent trend in organizing courses in geography at the present time is to drop the old systematic treatment of organization by countries and states or at least to supplement it with regional patterns, which make up a mosaic of the areas of the earth's surface. Such patterns, however, vary to a considerable degree. At one extreme, unit areas are relatively narrow, for example, the wheat region, the corn belt, the cotton belt, the Argentine *pampa*, the Lower Rhine industrial region. The other extreme is reached when division is made on the basis of broad areas, as, for example, a study of the life and activities of the four major economic regions of the United States. It should be kept in mind that there is no commonly accepted regional map of the world. The incompleteness of scientific geographic knowledge and the changes that are constantly going on in the physical environment, as well as man's reaction to it, make impossible any definite agreement on regional areas. Under present conditions, uniformity is not necessary or even desirable. From the point of view of the junior-high-school teacher, units based on any plan should be developed in the light of the teacher's preparation, the background of the pupils, and the objectives of the course. Regardless of what form is adopted, the interrelations of the different regions should be stressed.

The Topical Plan.—As has been pointed out in an earlier chapter (pages 47–48), the topical method was first used in an attempt to get away from the order of the textbook. An examination of courses of study will reveal that topics vary in scope and content. An example of this form of organization in a course in world geography can be seen in the following: the United States and its possessions, Latin America, the British Commonwealth of Nations, Africa, Western Europe, Russia, the Balkans, the Near East, and the Far East. The chief consideration should be to relate the work as much as possible within each topic and to interrelate the topics. The danger with this plan is that there might be too much memory work and too little stress upon rational and interpretative aspects of geography.

The Type Plan of Organization.—A type plan is based on carefully selected topics or units that represent a group, kind, or class of natural phenomena. For example, the Mississippi River

might represent rivers; and the Appalachians, a mountain system. This method goes back to the nineteenth century, especially to the work of Guyot. The chief argument for this plan is that the subject matter of geography contains so much material that it can be better taught by a type study. Its values lie in the fact that a more intensive study of principles and causal relations may be made; and broad generalizations, which are often meaningless, may be avoided. On the other hand, it should be pointed out to pupils that exactly the same conditions do not prevail in regard to all members of a certain group. It is not necessary to note all exceptions to the type, for this would make for confusion. But an understanding that there are differences in conditions is essential.

Other Plans.—Many teachers organize geographic materials and activities into problems. What has been said elsewhere about this method applies here also. The statement of the problem, the selection of procedures, the securing of information to provide a solution or a possible solution, and the reaching of conclusions are the chief aspects of this form of organization. In so doing, pupils are required to use their reasoning powers and can develop their abilities to think geographically. A series of problems may be arranged within each unit; for example, the reasons for the growth of a number of important cities can comprise one unit. On the other hand, the plan or organization may be on a broader basis. A large problem, divided into subproblems, may comprise each unit. The problem as to why Mexico, occupying a favorable position on the face of the earth, possessing excellent natural resources, and having a diversity of climates, has made so little progress during the past 500 years is an example of this plan.[2] This method has the advantage of bringing out causal relationships. But it should be used cautiously, for problem solving is most difficult and exacting. The problem, therefore, must be adapted to the intellectual and emotional level of the pupil, or its educational values may be lost.

The project method is being used by some teachers in teaching geography, although it is difficult to organize an entire course in this field on this basis. It should be borne in mind that the project must be pupil planned in a real-life situation and should be

[2] See H. W. Fairbanks, *Real Geography and Its Place in the Schools*, pp. 144 *ff.*, San Francisco, 1927, for an analysis of this problem.

purposeful. Projects may be occasionally used to advantage within some other type of organization.

Related in some ways to the project method is home geography, which is a study of the life of the community from the geographic point of view. The junior-high-school pupil might be familiar with this plan because of its use in the elementary school. It should be constantly used in the study of broader fields of geography. The importance of observation, the values of the excursion and fieldwork, and the opportunities to direct study in accord with the interests of the pupils make "home geography," "local geography," or "observational geography" important in the work of the junior high school. This plan should be applied to bring about an appreciation and understanding of the more complex life of the community and the other regions of the world.

Fusion Courses.—Much experimentation has taken place in the junior high school to consolidate, amalgamate, blend, or fuse geography with other subjects such as history, civics, sociology, and economics. Under the leadership of Harold O. Rugg and others, this movement has made much headway in recent years. Arguments are still waged over the value of fusion as opposed to the separate social studies, but little as yet appears to have been proved one way or the other.[3]

If geography is taught as a separate subject, much consideration should be given to coordinating it with the other fields in the program of social studies. Whether the plan of studies is arranged in the order of geography in the seventh grade, history in the eighth, and civics in the ninth or in some other order of social studies, or the tandem plan of a unit of geography, a unit of history, and a unit of civics is presented within the one course, it is necessary to consider coordination and integration continually, for geography is but one phase of human knowledge and experience. This, of course, means that the teacher is fully conscious of the part that he is taking in the complete program and that he can do his part toward the chief end of education which is the question not of whether the different subjects should be taught this way or that but of what should be done to aid the pupil to integrate his thinking.

[3] See H. W. Fairbanks, *Real Geography and Its Place in the Schools*, pp. 161 *ff*.

Geography in Senior High School.—A majority of senior high schools in the United States offer courses in geography, but many exclude it entirely. Where it is taught, it is usually an elective subject, except in a number of schools that require it in the commercial course. Various labels are applied to courses in senior high school geography, including commercial geography, economic geography, physical geography, general geography, high-school geography, human ecology, political geography. The titles suggest the many varieties of the subject given. With the exception of commercial geography, there is no distinct trend of any sort in teaching this field in senior high schools.[4]

Commercial or Economic Geography.—The geography that treats the geographic aspects of industry, commerce, and trade is called commercial, or economic, geography. Emphasis is placed on agriculture, lumbering, animal industries, mineral industries, manufacturing, and transportation. This type of geography treats the needs and the satisfaction of the needs of mankind as seen in the provision made for the production and distribution of food, clothes, shelter, fuel, and the materials of luxury and culture but from the geographic point of view. The contributions of the different parts of the world, because of their particular type of environment and the geographic economic relationships between the various areas, should have an important place in such a course. The chief aim should be to orient the pupil in the world of industry and commerce and should serve as an introduction to the political aspects of geography.

The following objectives have been suggested for a course in commercial or economic geography:

1. An understanding of the relation of the major commodity movements to world trade routes, to the major producing regions, and to the major consuming regions.
2. An initial understanding of the relation of the world's transportation, patterned to the transfiguration of land areas, to great circle distances, to air currents, and to major commercial regions.
3. An initial understanding of the growth and location of commercial centers as related to the commercial industries of the surrounding area, to position in a route pattern, and to qualities of immediate site.

[4] For a survey, see Clare Symonds, "The Status of Geography in the Senior High School," National Society for the Study of Education, *Thirty-second Yearbook*, Chap. XXXI.

4. An acquaintance with the general nature of trade of each major commercial region and an understanding of how the trade is related through productive industries to natural environment.
5. A recognition of the regional grouping of countries or parts of countries on the basis of contiguous location, similarity in methods of utilizing natural resources, and general direction of trade movements.
6. A recognition of the large and diversified trade of the major commercial regions as reflecting variety and abundance of natural resources and human initiative in capitalizing these resources.
7. An initial understanding of the limitations imposed on commercial output by unfavorable natural conditions, such as aridity, ruggedness, poverty in mineral resources or shortness of frost-free season.[5]

Organization of Courses in Commercial Geography.—In a study of the relations of the industries and commerce of the world together with the natural environment on which they depend, the importance of the principles that underlie such activities of man should be taken into consideration. For example, causal sequence, including position or location, topography, climate, resource, industry, and distribution, should be an accepted principle. Various plans are in use. The chief of these are the regional, the topical, the type, or the regional-commodity plan. The last presents a world pattern and at the same time interprets the geography of a commercial region. Regional, topical, and type plans or organization have already been discussed in this chapter. One thing should be emphasized. A study of commercial geography requires a background of knowledge about the earth, resources, climates, and peoples. Since an understanding of certain aspects of history and economics is also necessary, it is evident that the subject is one that should be given in the senior rather than the junior high school.

What Type of Geography Should Be Taught in High Schools?—Although there is a trend toward the teaching of commercial geography in senior high schools, many do not make provision for any type of the subject. In both junior and senior high schools, the place of geography should be considered in the light of the whole social-studies program in particular and the entire school curriculum in general. Although much thought is being

[5] ALICE FOSTER and K. L. CALLOWAY, "Geography in the Senior High School," National Society for the Study of Education, *Thirty-second Yearbook*, Chap. XVIII.

given to curriculum revision at the present time, not enough concern is demonstrated for the entire program, which must be integrated as far as possible, regardless of the pattern adopted. Until this is done, the different subjects or fields will be fitted into the curriculum without scientific precision of any sort. In the light of the objectives already discussed, geography and the geographic viewpoint or outlook have a very important part to play in American education.

The Need for Political Geography.—Largely because of recent world conditions, many educators have been advocating new courses in political geography in senior high schools. This aspect of geography treats the division of the earth into nations and other political units, as well as the activities of such groupings in the light of the geographic environment. The cataclysmic changes of recent years and the increasing recognition of the growing interdependence of peoples require an emphasis on a study of this phase of geography. The situation of the present calls for an enlightened attitude toward world citizenship. Such a course in high schools, however, must be considered in connection with the whole curriculum and should not be inserted into the program only because of the exigency of the moment.

Aids to Teaching Geography.—In teaching any aspect of geography, a broad variety of aids may be utilized. With each unit or topic, provision should be made for varied activities. These should be selected carefully to fit in with the objectives of the course and the abilities and needs of the class. They will vary widely in the junior and senior high schools. Among the many aids that may be used, opportunities should be provided for dramatizations, debates, forums, exhibits, map making, graph making, drawing, sketching, and other forms of activities. Those selected should be carefully integrated with the entire work of the unit. Among visual aids, many motion picture films can be obtained,[6] and still films or film slides may be obtained at low cost from the Society for Visual Education, Chicago; the McKinley Publishing Company, Philadelphia; and other companies.

Materials for the Study of Geography.—Many brief bibliographies are available for a study of geography. F. K. Branom, *A Bibliography of Recent Literature on the Teaching of Geography,*

[6] Consult the *Education Film Catalog,* The H. W. Wilson Company, New York.

and E. B. Knight, *A Bibliography of Geographical Literature for Elementary Grades and Junior High School*, are published by the Home Study Department, Clark University, Worcester, Massachusetts. F. K. Branom, "A Bibliography of Geography Books for Teachers and Pupils,"[7] is another guide. A brief but well-selected list of books can be found in "Bibliographies for Teachers of the Social Studies," by E. B. Wesley, in the *Historical Outlook*, November, 1932.[8] A list of booklets and pamphlets is included in an article by Harold Gluck, "Living with Geography," in *Social Studies*, November, 1938.

Among magazines for teachers of geography, the *Journal of Geography*, the official organ of the National Council of Geography Teachers, is of much value. Important material will be found in the *Geographical Review*, the journal of the American Geographical Society, and in *Economic Geography*, which of course emphasizes commercial geography. Magazines that contain geographical material, especially illustrative, which can be used in the classroom include the *National Geographic Magazine*, *Asia*, and *Travel*. The National Geographic Society's weekly bulletin for teachers, the *Geographic News Bulletin*, is planned to keep teachers informed of geographic changes occurring in all parts of the world and interprets world news of peoples, places, industries, and customs, with illustrations taken from the picture files of the society. Many publications of the Department of Agriculture, the Department of Commerce, and the Weather Bureau should be in every school library.

There are a number of books with which teachers of geography should be quite familiar. Only a few can be mentioned here. Ellsworth Huntington, *The Human Habitat*, shows how man has adjusted himself to different parts of the world. J. R. Smith, *North America*, recently revised in collaboration with M. O. Phillips, points out the interrelation of human activities on this continent, tracing their dependence upon the physical environment. *The New World*, by Isaiah Bowman, is a political geography of the world and is the result of an extensive inquiry made after our entrance into the First World War for the purpose

[7] National Society for the Study of Education, *Thirty-second Yearbook*, Chap. XXVI.

[8] These bibliographies are also published separately by the McKinley Publishing Company, Philadelphia.

of aiding the great ideal of Woodrow Wilson—a league of nations. The outstanding work, *American History and Its Geographic Conditions*, by E. C. Semple, revised in collaboration with the author by C. F. Jones, should not be neglected. Miss Semple's *Influences of Geographic Environment on the Basis of Ratzel's System of Anthropogeography* treats the influence of climate, physical features, and soils. It is a scholarly work of deep significance.

Summary.—Geography was taught in colonial schools, usually by the catechetical method. It covered a wide field—from astronomy to zoology. A trend to narrow the subject to world geography and, in a few cases, to American geography took place early in the nineteenth century. Whereas interest in social geography made gains after the Civil War, owing to the influence of Pestalozzi, Ritter, and Guyot, the end of the nineteenth century saw an emphasis on physical geography, although the commercial aspects of the subject were given consideration by some textbook writers. The influence of John Dewey and his school of thinkers, together with the First World War, was largely responsible for the development of the "new," or "human," geography in the twentieth century.

In junior high schools at the present time, a variety of courses in geography may be found. The only apparent uniformity is in seventh-grade geography where varying emphases are placed on a study of United States geography, although it is usually studied in relation to world geography. The early years of adolescence present an opportunity for developing ideas and ideals of world citizenship. The chief function of geography in junior high schools should be to train pupils to think geographically. The effect of environment on different peoples, the interpretation of aspects of international relationships, an understanding of the use and misuse of natural resources, good citizenship, cultural interests, and the development of certain skills should be the chief purposes of school geography.

Several different plans of organization may be used in working out a course. The regional, topical, and type plans are being used today. Some teachers emphasize the problem and the project methods. Much experimentation has taken place in fusion, although little appears to have been proved for or against this form of organization. Regardless of plan, there must be

coordination and integration within the entire school curriculum.

Most senior high schools offer courses in geography, but many do not. As in junior high schools, there is little uniformity in the types of courses. With the exception of commercial geography, there is no distinct trend, and the teaching of geography is in a very confused state. Commercial or economic geography treats the geographic aspects of industry, commerce, and trade. The chief aim in such a course should be to orient the pupil in the world of industry and commerce and to introduce him to the political aspects of geography. In organizing a course in this field, the importance of principles that underlie man's activities should be considered. A regional, topical, type, or regional-commodity plan may be used. Since commercial geography requires a broad background and a knowledge about the earth, resources, climates, and peoples, it should be given in senior high school rather than in lower grades.

The question as to what type of geography should be taught in secondary schools is a difficult one. It should be considered in the light of whole social-studies program and the entire school curriculum. Until this is done, it can be fitted in only haphazardly at best. Largely because of present-day conditions, some educators advocate new courses in political geography.

Many aids can be utilized in teaching the various aspects of geography. From such a wealth of teaching aids, a careful selection should be made to fit in with the objectives of the course and the abilities and needs of pupils. The selected activities should be carefully integrated with all phases of the work of the unit. Much material is available. Bibliographies, magazines, journals, bulletins, special treatises, and other publications provide a wealth of material which can be used to much advantage by geography teachers.

Questions

1. Discuss the evolution of secondary-school geography from colonial days to the present.
2. Outline the different types of courses in geography in junior high schools today. Why is there such a variety?
3. Should geography be considered an important subject in the junior high school? Give your reasons.
4. List the chief objectives of junior-high-school geography.
5. Give example of the regional plan of organizing a course in geography.

6. Define (*a*) the topical plan, (*b*) the type plan, (*c*) the problem method of organizing geographic materials.

7. Present your ideas of (*a*) fusion and (*b*) integration in regard to geography and other subjects.

8. What types of geography courses are offered in different senior high schools?

9. Why is there a trend toward offering commercial geography?

10. Discuss the objectives of a course in commercial geography.

11. How would you organize a course in commercial geography?

12. What principles should be adopted in deciding what type of geography should be taught in senior high schools?

13. Do you believe that political geography should be stressed in secondary schools? Give your reasons.

14. Give a list of activities that can be used as aids in teaching geography.

15. Classify the different types of materials that should be used by the teacher of geography.

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CHAPTER XIV

CORRELATION AND FUSION

The Development of the Idea of Correlation in the United States.—The treatment of subjects in the secondary schools as detached units without relation to other subjects is receiving much condemnation from a number of educators today. Attempts are being made in educational theory and to some extent in educational practice to bring the various subjects of the curriculum into some degree of harmony. One means of accomplishing this is through correlation. The idea is not new. It was introduced into the United States by the Herbartians. Here it exerted some influence through the leadership of such men as Charles de Garmo, Charles A. McMurry, W. T. Harris, and Francis W. Parker. The whole idea was presented rather carefully in a report on secondary education by the National Education Association's Committee of Ten in 1893 and in a report on elementary education by the National Education Association's Committee of Fifteen in 1895. The *First Yearbook* (1895) of the Herbart Society for the Scientific Study of Teaching summarized the thinking of this group. These educators had a remarkably clear conception of the problems involved—far clearer than many of those who have advocated correlation in more recent times.[1]

During this period, certain exponents of the movement carried the idea of correlation to the stage of concentrating the materials around a central core subject. There was, however, no agreement as to what subject should be the one around which the material was to be unified. Some proposed that it should be history; others preferred that it should be science; others chose geography; and finally, some suggested the social life of the school. The idea of correlation, like many other educational theories, can be carried to ridiculous extremes. It is open to question whether or not students will get a better comprehension

[1] HAROLD A. ANDERSON and HOWARD C. HILL, "The Correlation of Social Studies and Other Subjects," National Council for the Social Studies, *Sixth Yearbook* (1936), pp. 171–197.

of the place of Julius Caesar in history through an artificial correlation such as studying Shakespeare's play along with the Gallic Wars, while at the same time constructing a model of a Roman camp in the shop. Some of the time might be spent far more profitably in a natural correlation, developing the idea of dictatorships and then applying this information to modern times.

The Influence of John Dewey.—No discussion of correlation would be complete without mention of the influence of the great educational philosopher John Dewey. He has been a leader in formulating an American educational philosophy during the last four decades, and one of his contributions is his emphasis on the "interconnectedness" of the school curriculum. In spite of the fact that this theory, as well as some of his other ones, have been carried to impossible extremes, the general soundness of his contribution is admitted. His insistence on the interrelation among subject-matter fields and among the various parts of the same field has brought about some desirable reorganization. It is probably safe to say that John Dewey is perfectly willing to preserve subject-matter names, provided that they are so taught that the interdependence is clear to the student.[2]

Dewey's influence is very important in the thought of the educators who have been greatly concerned over the compartmentalization in American schools and in American life.[3] They feel strongly that education must view life as a whole and that the future of democracy depends very largely on the training that the school gives in democratic thought and procedure.

The Importance of Correlated Thinking.—The lack of correlated thinking is visible everywhere. Men who are modern in one field of thought frequently hold archaic ideas in other fields. Such an incongruous position is due largely to the early educational training given the individual. If we are to think intelligently and without bias or prejudice, it is evident that education must emphasize the relationships between the various aspects of knowledge and must not treat the special subjects as airtight

[2] Edwin H. Reeder, "John Dewey and the Activist Movement," National Council for the Social Studies, *Fifth Yearbook* (1935), pp. 38–49.

[3] W. H. Kilpatrick, Boyd H. Bode, John Dewey, John L. Childs, R. B. Raup, H. Gordon Hullfish, and V. T. Thayer, *The Educational Frontier*, Chap. I, New York, 1933.

compartments, bearing no relationship whatever to other subjects.

Correlated Thinking in the Schools.—Under our present educational system, with its departmentalized teaching and with teachers who are trained as specialists in the various fields, it is difficult to get pupils to see the general relationships in the different fields and subjects of the curriculum. Even within the subjects themselves, facts are frequently isolated from related facts in the same field. For example, in American history, pupils are taught the story of the drilling of the first oil well in history in the western part of Pennsylvania. How often do they connect this important event with other facts that they have learned, such as the advent of the gasoline engine, which makes possible the automobile and the airplane; the program of good roads; the struggle in its various ramifications between the great oil companies in their desire to secure markets; the financial difficulties of railroads; and the consolidated schools, which have been made possible by the use of the motor bus? Pupils are taught facts, but they do not always see the relationships among them. What is true within a subject is also true when other subjects are concerned. The lack of cooperation among the various departments in regard to correlating knowledge is being recognized today, and the correlation of courses is being successfully accomplished in a few schools.

The correlation of subjects can be applied much more easily in the elementary school than in the secondary school, because the same teacher teaches several subjects. Many elementary-school teachers plan a part of their work from this viewpoint, correlating phases of the work in history and geography, history and literature, and other subjects. With the departmentalization of our schools and specialization in teaching, correlation has been largely neglected in the secondary school. The socializing influences of such a plan and the advantages that may be obtained in this manner through the association of ideas have been overlooked to a great extent.

Correlated Courses of Study.—Success has been attained in a few secondary schools where such experiments have been made in correlating the fields of English and history, usually literature and history. The literature of each period studied becomes a means for developing understanding and rounding out a com-

prehensive knowledge of the history of that period. Literature and history together serve the purpose of helping the pupil feel the life and understand the problems of the periods. Plans have been worked out successfully to correlate history and geography in a similar manner. The course in geography runs parallel to the course in history; for example, when the pupil is studying the westward movement in American history, he learns at the same time, in the geography class, the geography of the United States as a background. Thus the geographic background of a region is studied at the same time as the history of the region is learned.

Experiments have been made to correlate other subjects in the high school, and many experiments have been successful. Other plans of correlation include the so-called "tandem plan," in which first a unit of geography is taught, then a related unit of history, and finally a related unit of civics. Many successful courses have also been worked out in correlating community civics with oral and written English. In the meantime, it should be remembered that good teachers have always used incidental correlation. No one can teach American history without knowing about climate and soil and rainfall; nor can such a course be really vital unless the creative work in literature, music, and art is discussed. The only limit to such correlation is the teacher's knowledge. This kind of correlation is practical and valuable.

Systematic correlation may appear to be desirable; but as has already been pointed out, some types lead into rather impossible situations. To use correlation when there is no natural point of contact between the subjects taught makes for inefficient teaching and for loss of interest on the part of the student.[4]

Examples of Correlation among Various Subject-matter Fields. *Science and Social Studies.*—Any correlation to be successful must develop from a natural situation. This means a knowledge of the interests and abilities of the students, a clear understanding of the purposes of education and of the contributions that the various subject-matter fields are to make to these fundamental purposes, the development of tests to evaluate the achievements of the students, and finally the very close cooperation of the teachers.

[4] HOLLIS L. CASWELL, and DOAK S. CAMPBELL, *Curriculum Development*, Chap. VIII.

A class in social studies may be dealing with the Renaissance as a phase of the development of modern times. The social-studies outline might cover the following topics:

The Renaissance
- How associated with classical civilization
- Its origin
- Difference between the Renaissance and medieval institutions
- The new individualism
- Influence on art and education
- The political aspects of the Renaissance
- Effects on religion
- The new scientific spirit
- Spread to northern Europe

The science outline, which is given in more detail, covered the following units.[5]

I. Introductory Unit
  A Ancient Peoples and the Emergence of Modern Times
   1. The following basic questions need answering:
      a. What contributions did ancient peoples make to the Renaissance?
      b. What concepts, held by ancient peoples, hindered the Renaissance?
      c. What modern scientific concepts had their origin in ancient times?
      d. What concepts held by ancient peoples are found in your community?
   2. Choose an ancient culture, and find answers to the above questions with respect to it
   3. Organize your material so that it can be used for future reference by the group
   4. Give concrete examples wherever possible
   5. The following readings are recommended:
      SIR WILLIAM DAMPIER, *A History of Science*, pp. 106–118
      JOSEPH MAYER, *The Seven Seals of Science;*
        Greeks, pp. 18–48
        Arabs, pp. 48–51
        Middle Ages, pp. 57–58

[5] The science outline was prepared and taught by Dr. C. B. Mendenhall, now a member of the faculty of the School of Education, Ohio State University.

THEODORE F. VAN WAGENEN, *Beacon Lights of Science*, pp. 55–58

ALFRED N. WHITEHEAD, *Science and the Modern World*, Chap. I

6. Make use of ancient histories, histories of science and mathematics, and encyclopedias

II. Astronomy Unit

A. Man's Exploration in the Heavens and the Emergence of Modern Times

1. Basic questions:
   - *a*. What effect did the old astronomy have on man's idea about himself, his world, and truth?
   - *b*. What were the implications of the new astronomy for the average man of the Renaissance?
   - *c*. What forces worked to prevent the acceptance of these new discoveries?
   - *d*. Are these forces working today? If so, where?
   - *e*. Can we do anything to combat these forces?
   - *f*. How was the new truth finally established?
   - *g*. Was the truth discovered by these men final?
2. References:

SIR WILLIAM DAMPIER, *A History of Science*
Copernicus, pp. 119–124
Kepler, pp. 139–141
Galileo, pp. 141–147
Newton, pp. 166–169

JOSEPH MAYER, *The Seven Seals of Science*
Ptolemy, pp. 39–46
Copernicus, pp. 62–66
Galileo and Kepler, pp. 67–80

W. T. SKILLING, *Tours through the World of Science*, pp. 215–259

W. T. SEDGWICK and H. W. TYLER, *A Short History of Science*, pp. 191–226

PRESERVED SMITH, *A History of Modern Culture*, Chap. II

THEODORE F. VAN WAGENEN, *Beacon Lights of Science*, pp. 5, 27, 41, 58, 76, 80, 94, 118, 135

GROVE WILSON, *Great Men of Science*, pp. 86–92, 105–118, 129–156, 157–188

1. Write a story of the adventures of at least four explorers of the heavens.
2. Be prepared to enter into a discussion of each of the basic questions.

3. Write an account of any recent exploration of the heavens.
4. Make an outline or chart of the findings of the class in this unit.

III. Man's Explorations in the World about him and the Emergence of Modern Times

A. Basic questions:

1. What scientific instruments were used by these explorers in their search for the secrets of their world?
2. Can you discover the natural law involved in the use of each of these instruments?
3. What opposition was encountered?
4. What frontiers were opened by these explorers?
5. What was the immediate effect of these discoveries on the world?
6. What does present-day civilization owe to these discoveries?

B. References:

Sir William Dampier, *A History of Science*
Magnetism, pp. 136–137
Graphs, pp. 147–151
Meteorology, pp. 164–175
The law of gravitation, pp. 164–175
Boyle's law, pp. 152–155

R. W. Fuller, R. B. Brownlee, D. L. Baker, *First Principles of Physics*
Pressure in fluids, p. 41
Floating bodies, p. 65
The atmosphere and its pressure, p. 92
Boyle's law and compressed air, p. 114
How forces act together, p. 131
Bodies in motion, pp. 195–232
Nature of heat, p. 256
Heat and work, p. 347
Sound and sound waves, pp. 371–397
Nature of light, pp. 423–456
Optical instruments, p. 487
Color, p. 497
Water power, p. 755
Essentials of the metric system, p. 795

It should be noted that the class had completed units covering the Greek and medieval periods. In planning this work, the science and social-studies teachers had the cooperation of the English, modern-languages, and art teachers. At the end of

the unit, the two teachers collaborated in devising a test to cover the material that had been presented. The purpose of the test was to see if the students had mastered certain fundamental relationships. For example, a list of events, personages, and institutions was given, and the students were asked to decide whether these had directly or indirectly influenced certain important factors in the emergence of modern times, such as the rise of the new national states, the development of modern astronomy, the growth of individualism, and the control of disease. These tests can be adjusted to the material presented and are excellent for review purposes. At the end of the three-year experiment, this unit, which had been presented at the beginning of the second year, was one of those which the group remembered best. It needs to be emphasized again and again that intelligent cooperation on the part of the teachers makes for the most successful integration by the students.

Music and Social Studies.—In a course in the history of civilization, opportunity was taken to correlate the work with that of the various departments. One illustration will suffice to show how cooperative teaching can make for more effective learning. The class was dealing with the topic "The Importance of Music as a Factor in the Development of Civilization." They had read about the classical school, the romantic school, and the modern school of music. They knew the names of composers and their creations. They realized that music was an important factor in human evolution.

The music teacher then took charge of the class and, with skillful touches, vitalized what they had learned; Schubert became a reality because they now understood more about the *Unfinished Symphony;* they reveled in the music of Wagner; they entered thoroughly into the spirit of the *Finlandia* of Sibelius; and finally they listened with approval or disapproval to the music of the extreme modernists. Far from losing interest in this unit, the class was unanimous in voting it one of the best of the year. In fact, the enthusiasm was so great that the pupils carried out a plan by which they presented to the music teacher a favorite record which was not in the collection at the time that the unit was studied.

English and Social Studies.—A very natural correlation is that between English and the social studies—a field in which excellent

work has been done. Real educational value can accrue from such cooperation without in any way impairing the unique contributions that each subject has to make. Certainly no cooperative course would limit the English teacher in giving students opportunities for expressing their own individualities; neither should the time be limited in which to create a genuine appreciation and love of worthy literature. As has already been said, adequate tests to evaluate cooperative work need to be constructed. A valid test is the kind of reading that students do in their free time. One way to check this is in cooperation with the librarian, who can furnish lists of books that students are using for their own reading. Such lists will show whether the student is spending most of his time on fiction or nonfiction. They also will make clear how many of the teacher's incidental suggestions are chosen for reading.

English, Sociology, Mathematics, Science, and Art.—The value of correlation in a curriculum that aims to prepare for intelligent citizenship without regard to college-entrance requirements is being demonstrated by a teaching experiment in which the English, social-studies, mathematics, science, and art departments are cooperating. A brief summary of one unit is given, including the general objectives.

Objectives

1. To develop an understanding of some of the reasons for individual differences and an appreciation of how these individual qualities may contribute to group living within the family and community.
2. To improve the ability to recognize the cause of racial, cultural, and industrial conflict and the effects of such conflicts upon the home and the individual.
3. To study some of the underlying causes and possible methods of preventing family disturbances.
4. To gain the knowledge of how to get reliable data on which to base conclusions and decisions about social, political, and economic questions.
5. To gain a critical awareness of the ways in which one gets one's own opinion including the influence of stereotypes; rationalizations; and group, class, and personal interests.

Outline of the Unit

1. The home—what it is and what its purpose is
   a. English: The student gathered topics and titles of songs, poems, plays, and music having to do with the home as a central theme. Some of these were read in class and discussed.
   b. Mathematics: House plans, either copies or original, were drawn to scale, and costs computed
   c. Science: The class took up many ways in which scientific inventions and discoveries have changed home living and home conditions. Many of these were studies in some detail, for example, sanitation, water supply, and foods.
   d. Arts: In this work, they planned the interior decorations for the houses that they were drawing in mathematics and studied color schemes, lighting, and the use of rooms.
2. Recent changes in marriage and family relations in America and in other parts of the world
   Extensive use of newspaper articles bearing on this topic was made in connection with the English work.
3. A brief history of marriage and a consideration of marriage customs in other lands
4. The purposes of courtship
5. Why an engagement?
6. Marriage
   a. What are some of the legal aspects of marriage?
   b. Successful marriages fulfilling the character needs of both parties to the union
   c. Some of the factors involved in the promotion of happy marriages after the ceremony
7. The causes of desertion and divorce and a consideration of the problems arising from broken homes
   a. Its effect on adults
   b. Its effect on children
   c. Juvenile delinquency
   Many magazines were consulted for information and points of view on these topics, and they were discussed in both the English and the social-studies classes.
8. What are some of the things that society can do to help marriage? the family?

a. Taxation

In this connection the student studied in mathematics the principles underlying taxation. They also spent considerable time on building and loan, home financing, mortgages, different types of insurance.

b. Tightening the marriage laws

c. Reforming the divorce laws

d. The work of the courts of domestic relations and mental-hygiene clinics

e. Training for marriage and parenthood in the high schools and colleges

The home-economics teacher conducted a very interesting experiment with white rats and nutrition as a part of the work of her department bearing on the problem of successful home and family life. This led to much interested reading and discussion in the home-economics and science classes.

OTHER TOPICS TAKEN UP BY THE SOCIAL-STUDIES CLASSES DURING THE YEAR

1. The physiological basis of individual differences
2. Some of the factors of personality
3. The dynamics of personality
4. The causes of conflicts and some solutions
5. Mental conflicts and feelings of inferiority
6. Racial and industrial conflicts
7. Parent-child relations.[6]

Suggestions for Developing Plans of Correlation.—In planning to develop correlated courses, certain things should be very clear: (1) any cooperative plan of teaching must take into consideration the personalities and abilities of the pupils; (2) the objectives must always be clearly in the mind of the teacher; (3) teachers who have the most experience are becoming convinced that the only valuable correlation of subject matter is that which takes place in the pupil's mind. The curriculum and methods of teaching should train him to correlate knowledge in many fields, drawing upon his educational experience in school and out. It is wrong to limit him to a plan of correlation made

[6] These units were planned and taught under the direction of Richard H. McFeely, director of studies, George School, George School, Pa.

out in advance by his teachers; (4) wherever possible, the student should have plenty of opportunity for actual participation in social activity. This may be in the form of worth-while committee work; it may be a form of community service; it may be participation in the kind of work made possible by the camps established by the Friends Service Committee. Democracy must find a way to absorb its youth into significant activities; (5) the plan of cooperative teaching cannot succeed unless teachers have been trained for it in both subject matter and method. This will require some reorganization of curricula in teacher-training institutions. Some reorganization is already under way, but more changes must come in order that there may be a sufficient number to carry on the work; (6) it must be remembered that no device can ever be substituted for inspired teaching.

The Movement toward Fusion.—A tendency that is becoming more and more evident in the process of education in our country appears in the attempts to abolish the dividing lines between certain subjects taught in the schools. "Fusion" is the term generally employed in the plans to blend several subjects. More progress has been made in this respect in the social studies than in any other field of learning, although similar plans are being tried in other fields. Much experimentation has resulted, especially in junior high schools; and during the past decade or so, the value of such courses has been a highly controversial problem. The extent of the movement makes a knowledge and an evaluation of the theory and practice of fusion necessary for the progressive teacher.

The Meaning of Fusion in the Social Studies.—The term fusion in the social studies generally means the breakdown of subject boundaries and the amalgamation of the materials of instruction to a greater or lesser extent into units or divisions of learning. Traditional arrangements of subject matter are discarded, and the materials for a fusion course are drawn from various fields including history, civics, and geography. The viewpoints of the special subjects are abolished. Emphasis is placed on the organization of social objectives and on the selection and arrangement of social material that has direct function value and that will therefore contribute to the making of intelligent and socially effective citizens.

Varying Ideas of Fusion.—As attempted in some junior high schools in different sections of the country, fusion courses vary to a considerable degree. The first courses in fusion, organized soon after the close of the First World War, included related and blended material from the fields of history, geography, and civics—geography providing the stage and the setting, with history and civics providing the individual and group action upon the stage. The proponents of such courses have written much about the importance of teaching history upon the canvas of its geographical background. They also have emphasized the fact that civics requires a background of history and geography to give pupils an accurate knowledge and a deep understanding of our institutions. It is important to note that such courses imply the breakdown of subject lines among three subjects only.

An extreme in the idea of fusion has been reached by Dr. Harold O. Rugg, whose courses at the present time are the most widely used fusion courses in the country. They represent an attempt at a new adjustment to life of the materials of instruction in the schools. A new synthesis of knowledge without regard for any current courses is attempted and advocated. The subject matter is selected without any reference to any field whatsoever, the criteria for its selection being its social usefulness. Dr. Rugg has expressed his ideas as follows:

> Why one general course rather than the separate subjects of history, geography, and civics? Because the chief aim is to understand modern life and how it came to be. To understand any institution or condition of life today the mind must utilize facts, meanings, generalizations, and historical movements that in the past have been set up in the separate school subjects.[7]

Again he emphasizes these views:

> As one views American life as a whole in the light of the composition of the curriculum of our great school system, one conclusion presses insistently: We must invent a new synthesis of knowledge and make it the basis of the entire school curriculum. The conventional barriers between the existing subjects must be ignored in curriculum making. The *starting point* shall be the social institution, or the political and economic problem—not the subject. Psychological forces must oust

[7] *An Introduction to American Civilization*, Preface, p. v, Boston, 1929.

economic and political form as the directing themes of organization. . . ."[8]

The name unificationist has sometimes been applied to those who attempt to develop courses through a new synthesis of knowledge without any regard for traditional or current courses.

The term fusion is used in still another sense. In certain courses given this name, an attempt is made to fuse the social studies by making history the core of the course and adding to it material drawn from the various social studies. An examination of such courses shows that there is not a breaking down of subject boundaries and the point of view remains decidedly the historical. These courses, usually, must be regarded as essentially courses in history, which are greatly enriched by the addition of other subjects, and not as fusion courses. Some educators regard them as integrated courses, which will be explained in another chapter.

Reasons for the Rise of the Fusion Movement.—The chief reason for the rise and progress of the fusion movement may be found in the work of progressive educators. During the period of the First World War, much confusion existed in regard to the aims of education, the selection of subject matter, and the methods of teaching. The special values found in the separately organized subject fields of the social studies were attacked and, in many cases, denied. A new arrangement of knowledge was demanded. The duty of the school to train pupils to understand modern life was emphasized. A few educators began to insist that, to accomplish this objective, the materials of instruction of the social studies should be drawn from various fields. In time, courses were organized in terms of social objectives and functional units or problems without regard to the separate subjects. Dr. Rugg, one of the chief leaders in this movement, after much experimentation, published his series of textbooks for fusion courses in the social studies for the junior high school.[9]

[8] HAROLD O. RUGG, "A Preface to the Reconstruction of the American School Curriculum," *Teachers College Record*, 27 (March, 1926), pp. 606–607.

[9] HAROLD O. RUGG and Others, *The Social Science Pamphlets*, First Experimental Edition, 1921–1923; Second Experimental Edition, 1923–1926. See also J. M. GAMBRILL, "Experimental Curriculum-making in the Social Studies," *Historical Outlook*, 14 (December, 1923), pp. 391–397. More recently, certain groups and individuals attacked the Rugg textbooks on the

Six volumes make up the series. At the same time, much experimentation in various forms of fusion courses was being conducted in schools in different parts of the country under the leadership of others, including Professors R. W. Hatch, J. L. Meriam, L. C. Marshall, C. H. Judd, and C. C. Ball. Thus, much time and thought have been given to the idea of fusion, and many different types of fusion courses of study have been worked out.

Another reason for the attempts to abandon subject boundaries may be found in the overlapping and ignoring of the lines which traditionally separated history, civics, economics, and other social studies. About a generation ago, history was the all-important subject among the social studies, civics and economics being taught in relatively few public schools. Today, a large number of courses in the social studies are offered in the secondary school. The subject matter of these courses has expanded during recent years, so that there is much overlapping. The new history includes social, economic, and cultural aspects of history, as well as political; the new civics is more than the study of government, for it deals with the social and economic phases of the environment as well. Economics today is taught from the social point of view. The result is that the former traditional subject boundaries have been erased to a considerable extent, and much similar material can be found, not only in courses in history, civics, and economics but also in sociology, political science, and problems of democracy. It is natural that this development, which has resulted in the overlapping and duplication of material in the social studies, should give impetus to the idea of fusion.

A third important reason for the rise of fusion courses may be found in the overcrowded curriculum of the secondary school. To the few traditional subjects of a generation ago have been added not only the new nonhistorical social studies but also art, music, physical education, industrial arts, commercial work, and other courses as well. It has been getting increasingly difficult for pupils to select all the subjects that they desire from the large number offered. To many educators, the idea of fusion

ground that they contain material prejudicial to our form of government, our society, and to the system of free enterprise. Dr. Rugg replied to his critics in a volume titled, *That Men May Understand*, New York, 1941, which sets forth his purpose in writing the texts.

in various fields offers a way of escape from an overburdened curriculum.

An Evaluation of Fusion Courses.—It is too early in the movement to evaluate fusion courses.[10] Besides, an evaluation would require a critical analysis of the different varieties of such courses. Much experimental work is being done at the present time in fusing the social studies, but much more remains to be done. The proponents of the new courses emphasize the establishment of social objectives and a functional organization of material of social worth. They claim that the new organization is the best medium for making the social studies functional, which is naturally the aim of all progressive educators. This has not yet been proved; but neither has it been disproved. All curriculum makers today are attempting to select and organize their material so that it will be functional and will develop in pupils intelligent understandings, worth-while attitudes, and the many factors that make up good citizenship.

On the other hand, many educators question if it is necessary to fuse several subjects in order to obtain the best results, when it is considered that today each of the social studies is quite broad enough to permit the selection of an adequate quantity and quality of functional material which the high-school pupil can grasp and utilize. According to the critics of fusion courses, experience in the past has shown that the mind has limitations and, for this reason, the various subjects have evolved, resulting in the division of knowledge into various compartments, or fields. Each subject is an attempt to organize knowledge so that it can be understood, and each also represents a definite point of view. If the mind is not trained, in accord with psychological findings, to master one thing at a time, the result may be confusion. Although critics generally agree with the fusionists in their aims and with the principle that materials of instruction should be selected on the basis of their life usefulness rather than their subject usefulness, such critics believe that fusion courses ignore values inherent in the special subject fields which may be attained by reorganizing the special subjects rather than by eliminating them for a course made up of a combination of the social studies.

[10] The best analysis of fusion courses in the social studies at present is H. E. Wilson, *The Fusion of the Social Studies in the Junior High School*, Cambridge, Mass., 1933.

The fusionists are in complete agreement with all progressive educators in their advocacy of the organization of material into natural and lifelike units. The fundamental principle of fusion, which distinguishes it from other forms of the functional organization and content of courses, is in the demand that the traditional subject boundaries be obliterated and that the materials of instruction be selected from various fields to accomplish the aims and objectives set up.

Even in the separate social studies, however, the traditional subject boundaries are being broken down. For example, it has been pointed out that history has become much more than a chronology or narrative of political and military events. At the present time, history includes much material of a social, economic, and cultural nature. These aspects of history are found in all modern textbooks and courses of study. No efficient teacher teaches the westward movement in American history from the political viewpoint or in its military aspect alone, but many phases are brought out, including the means of travel, the development of transportation, the opening up of new territory, the relation between the environment and occupations as well as life in general, the establishment of government, the provisions taken for order and protection, the rise of cities, and the formation of states. The fusionists have gone further, however, in selecting what they regard as functional material from the fields of history, civics, geography, and other social studies without any regard whatever for subject lines.

Results of the Introduction and Development of Fusion Courses.—Many teachers are enthusiastic over the results secured through the organization of fusion courses, especially in junior high schools, where the experiments have been chiefly made. Other teachers have failed in their attempt to teach in this manner and find no benefit or good in such courses. The idea of fusion, however, not only has been valuable in giving emphasis to the organization of material into functional units of related subject matter but also has contributed in other ways to better teaching. Units have been worked out by many teachers, for review purposes especially, with excellent results. The claim that effective teaching can be accomplished only through fusion courses, however, is going too far. The plan can indeed be used advantageously in certain situations. Fusion has also proved valuable in showing up the weakness in many courses in

which more attention has been given to the subject than to the general and specific aims of education. The controversy that it has raised has, at least, stimulated much thought. Whether or not fusion courses will play an increasingly important part in educational theory and practice in the future remains to be seen.

Summary.—Correlation has played an important part in the educational thinking of the United States since about 1890. John Dewey has consistently emphasized the interrelationships of subject matter in a constructive way, even though some of his disciples have carried various of his ideas to extremes.

Correlation has influenced educational thought because secondary schools are departmentalized, and teaching is specialized to such an extent that little attention has been given to the relationships of the different subjects in the curriculum. The most successful correlations are those between English literature and history. Other experiments have been made correlating the social studies and science; home economics and history; English, the social studies, mathematics, science and art, and even all the subjects in the curriculum.

Although correlation is no educational panacea, if used by wise and thoughtful teachers it may help to bring about the correlated thinking that is so necessary today.

The term fusion is used in the social studies in several senses, but its general meaning is the breakdown of subject boundaries and the blending of materials from various fields to accomplish the objectives. Many educators have led in the fusion movement, but the courses worked out by Dr. Harold O. Rugg are more widely used than any other fusion courses. The reasons for the rise of the fusion movement include the demand for a new arrangement of knowledge which will contribute to present living, the overlapping of traditional boundaries in the new social studies, and the overcrowded curriculum. The idea of fusion has made contributions to better teaching, although much controversy exists as to its value.

Questions

1. Define the term "correlation."
2. Distinguish between correlation and fusion.
3. How did the idea of correlation become a part of the educational philosophy of the United States?
4. What are John Dewey's contributions to the idea of cooperative teaching?
5. Of what especial importance is correlated thinking in modern times?

6. What are some of the mistakes that the advocates of correlation have made in trying to establish their theory as a part of educational procedure?
7. Explain the meaning of the term "artificial correlation."
8. Explain the best procedure for cooperative teaching under the plan of correlation.
9. Develop a unit in which the social studies and mathematics can cooperate in a significant fashion.
10. How will a program of correlated teaching in the schools affect the training of teachers?
11. Trace the rise and progress of the fusion movement.
12. Distinguish between fusion and correlation.
13. Give the arguments for and against fusion courses.
14. Has the idea of fusion made any contributions to better teaching?

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CHAPTER XV

SOME RECENT TRENDS

The Need for Change.—It is frequently said that education is the hope of the world. This is true provided the right kind of education is forthcoming. Educators throughout the United States have long been deeply concerned with the needed changes in the curriculum that would bring the school more up to date and abreast of the times. The last two decades or more have been a period during which experiments with new materials, new methods, and new philosophies have been made; it has been a period of trial and error. Great differences in objectives and procedures can be found not only in each state system but in each city and in many schools working on their own initiative. This state of flux may prove to be a good thing for American education, because it represents a reaction to rapid social change—an attempt to break away from the traditional and to work toward new goals along less timeworn paths.

Social-studies teachers have shared and are sharing in these experiments. Educational and teaching objectives have been redefined. Much subject matter has been discarded as being inadequate or inappropriate to the new conditions; new materials have been added. Old procedures and techniques have often given place to new. The evaluation of the results of these new materials and procedures, however, has proceeded slowly; we have little evidence that the new is more successful than the old in producing competent members of a democratic society.

Examples of Change.—It is now assumed by many that one of the most significant tasks of the school, and of social-studies teachers in particular, is to provide opportunities for pupils to participate in democratic living, thereby developing those qualities and characteristics which are needed by individual citizens of a democratic society. It is also assumed that the essence of traditional democracy—a respect for the individual personality—does not find adequate expression in our present complex,

interdependent social order in "rugged individualism." Following this, it is further assumed that this central concept of early American democracy needs to be redefined and reinterpreted in terms of new social and economic conditions. This, according to many, is one of the many "new" purposes toward which the teaching and experiences in a social-studies class should be directed.

Then, too, another change of particular importance to the schools, and especially to social-studies teachers, is that there has been, during recent years, a tremendous increase in the secondary-school enrollment, although it is evident now that such enrollment has almost reached its peak because of the declining birth rate and restricted immigration. Educators in elementary and secondary schools have become increasingly aware of the problems brought by the influx of large numbers into the schools and have, to a greater degree, accepted as their purpose and responsibility the development and growth of the "whole child." They have become unwilling to continue in the role of mere transmitters of subject matter. This has presented the problem of developing a program adapted to the needs of a heterogeneous population of school children at every stage of their growth, flexible enough to meet the specific demands of the various sections of the country, comprehensive enough to cover the areas and concepts essential to an understanding of our changing social order, and clearly enough drawn to help each pupil develop the essential powers of intelligent citizenship.

Traditional Courses of Study.—In constructing the traditional subject-matter courses, the curriculum makers were primarily interested in content. They may or may not have had definite, concrete, well-formulated educational objectives set up while selecting their content. The textbook usually contained all the materials to be studied in a given course. This prevalent use of textbooks led to a rather rigid standardization of all courses, particularly in history and the other social studies.

Improvements in the curriculum were usually brought about by changes in the textbook materials, most often as a result of the pronouncements of various committees of scholars or of national associations such as the Committee of Seven reporting to the American Historical Association in 1899. Frequently these authoritative statements were outlined first in a national

report and then followed by new or revised textbooks. Seldom were the classroom teacher's opinions and experiences consulted before making these statements. The committees usually prescribed the specific course content for each grade level and often tested the success of a school or of a course by examinations formulated by an outside agency.

Reasons for Changing Curricula.—Beginning in the early part of the twentieth century, testing data of various sorts threw doubts upon the efficiency of the school. For example, with the rise of the new psychology, much was learned about the problems of learning and forgetting. The rate at which forgetting takes place, the length of time that a residue of specific information was retained, and other such pertinent and challenging data brought serious questions about the validity of many of the prevailing school practices. Quite naturally, the causes of the inefficiencies in school procedures were sought. Many studies were made, often using entirely new methods of attack on the problems, to discover whether or not the courses as traditionally taught were a cause. Since 1920, there has been a tremendous expansion of curriculum study as evidenced by the formation of many commissions for curriculum revision, by graduate theses, and by publications of various individuals and organizations on studies that have been or are being made on these very important problems.

On both the social and the psychological sides of the curriculum, there is now a great deal of evidence as to what to do and what not to do in organizing various social-studies courses. One thing seems certain: The era during which a course of studies that had been worked out by academicians far removed from the realities of a given classroom and imposed by a teacher on a group of docile, unquestioning pupils through the use of a single text, is a thing of the past. Social-studies teachers now recognize a growing need for much new material, part of it of such recent origin that it cannot possibly be included in a textbook and yet so vital that it should not be neglected. They also believe that much of the old material, reorganized along less conventional lines, can be advantageously worked out.

These trends in curriculum making make possible a more flexible and locally sensitive curriculum. But there are dangers as well as advantages in the situation. Flexibility and adaptation

to immediate situations are valuable things; but if the new freedom is to be effective, it must be used by sensitive, intelligent teachers whose opportunity it is to select the content of the new social-studies courses.

Some Newer Methods for Determining Course Content.—The people of the United States are committed to the ideal of suitable secondary schooling for all American youth. Even though an increasing proportion of high-school graduates will probably go on to more advanced education of some kind, the approximate age of eighteen or twenty will still see the end of formal schooling for a great majority of young people. This raises serious questions as to the teachers' responsibilities to them. What school experiences should they have?

From the whole range of possible experiences in the social studies, teachers in charge of the work in those fields must select the experiences that pupils should have in school. Since the major portion of their time is spent in school, the selection of such experiences becomes a great responsibility. Upon what basis should the selection be made?

More and more as a result of recognizing the diverse needs of its pupils, elementary and secondary schools have made many changes in their programs. They have added many new courses of study and have changed many of the old ones. As yet, there appears to be little evidence that the American high school has any well-planned program that will assure the values of a broad general education for all its pupils. What is true of the whole school program is equally true of the social studies. So often the fundamental things of enlightened living are slighted or omitted.

Psychology and the "New" Education.—The newer educational philosophies hold that if the school is to educate its pupils effectively, it must deal with each as an individual rather than as a cog in a machine. It follows, then, that individual needs, basic urges, ambitions, past experiences, and interests should play an important role in the selection of the curriculum content and pupil activities. This means that social-studies teachers will have to be interested in more than the acquisition and storage of knowledge. Instead, the emphasis must fall on the promotion of individual growth and enrichment rather than on teaching a given block of subject matter from a single textbook. The pupils themselves should have opportunities to participate in the deter-

mination of the educational goals that they seek in a given course, as well as in laying out plans for achieving these purposes. Putting this into practice will involve cooperation between the pupils and the teacher in planning the curriculum, although it must be understood that this does not mean pupil dictation of the curriculum.

"Needs" and Curriculum Making.—Many assume that the educational experiences in the secondary school must be relevant to the needs of young people growing up in the contemporary social and cultural scene. Before going further with this thesis, several things of fundamental importance should be brought to mind.

One is that the needs of an individual do not necessarily indicate the kind of behavior that is desirable; fundamentally, a question of values is also involved.

It should also be borne in mind that some needs will be "felt" by the individual; others, often much more important and vital, will have to be inferred from the information and data compiled about each pupil.

Furthermore, human needs are of such a character that complete satisfaction of them is impossible. Hence, some criteria must be found to help the teacher in determining the most important of an individual's needs and also in deciding how they should be met in order that the result may be of greatest satisfaction to the individual and to the society of which he is a part.

Methods for Determining Needs.—Some of the most helpful criteria for determining the needs of adolescents are those set forth in the *Possible Procedures for Obtaining a Tentative List of Pupil Needs*, prepared by a group of teachers participating in one of the summer workshops of the Progressive Education Association in 1937 under the direction of Ralph W. Tyler of the University of Chicago.[1] In this material, seven steps for obtaining a comprehensive list of pupil needs are set forth, the gist of which follows:

1. *Exploring the ideas of teachers regarding pupil needs.* This seems to be the most immediately available source for obtaining a statement of possible pupil needs. Two excellent studies of

[1] This is published in mimeographed form by the Evaluation Staff of the Progressive Education Association, Progressive Education Association, *Bulletin* 2409.

this kind are set forth in Daniel O. Prescott's *Emotion and the Educative Process* and in the Science Committee's report to the Progressive Education Association, *Science in General Education.* Social-studies teachers should also formulate their own list on the basis of their own observations and study as well as those of the other teachers in the same school.

2. *Exploring the ideas of pupils themselves regarding their needs.* A pupil may not be conscious of many of his most important needs. He is, however, aware of many of them and can helpfully supplement any list that is drawn up by teachers. In Howard M. Bell's, *Youth Tell Their Story,* an excellent study of this kind is given.

3. *Exploring the ideas of parents and laymen regarding pupil needs.* So far, this has not been a very productive or useful technique, although it could be made to produce more useful results if parents and laymen could become better informed and more interested in what was expected of them.

4. *Making use of the reports of studies of young people.* These reports should be fruitful sources for extending a list of pupil needs. Such a study as the one by Caroline Zachry, *Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence,* is a good example. Reports of this kind are conditioned by the point of view of the investigator and his procedures and must be used with these in mind.

5. *Making one's own studies of young people.* This type of study should be used by each teacher in his own classes. No matter how carefully pupils in general may have been studied by investigators, the particular needs of young people in a given class may differ at vital points from those which are common to pupils in general. In this connection, it seems quite clear that failure to adapt materials to the needs and capacities of a given group or to a specific individual may cause an experience in the classroom to be noneducative quite as much as the failure of an individual to adapt himself to the material. A teacher should know his pupils!

6. *Making use of the reports of studies of the activities of people in our society, of their problems, of the values essential to our society, of critical issues in modern life, and of emerging concepts regarding modern society.* Studies, such as *Middletown* or *Middletown in Transition* indicate many areas of significant needs of young people in our society.

7. *Making one's own studies of the activities of people in the community, of their problems, of the values needing emphasis, and of critical issues in the community.* These last two methods are very necessary if an intelligent effort is to be made to keep the work of a given social-studies course abreast of the times and serving a useful purpose in the lives of the pupils and of the community.

The practical social-studies teacher will not use exclusively any single basis for selecting subject matter or experiences. By consulting all these suggested sources, it is possible for teachers to obtain a rather comprehensive list of possible pupil needs.

Some of these needs will be stated in terms of activities that people need to carry on effectively, such as the need "to select and use goods wisely." Others will be set forth in terms of the purposes of an activity, for example, the need for "physical health." Or they will be stated in terms of problems involved in achieving purposes, as, for example, the "need for getting a job." Then, too, some will be set down in terms of traits of personality desired, such as a need for "greater self-confidence."

Classifying Pupil Needs.—In using needs as a basis for determining educational objectives and methods, a social-studies teacher should not make a list of the desires and inclinations of his pupils and then attempt to draw up lists of experiences through which they may be satisfied; nor does it mean a cataloguing of the specific knowledge, skills, and attitudes of his pupils and then determining upon the most effective means for expanding them. Another procedure is far more effective.

After the needs have been collected they must be grouped or put into common categories. It is impossible to classify them in such a way as to prevent overlapping from one category to another so that each need appears in only one division. It is not essential that the classification be discrete, the essential thing is that it be in a useful form from which curriculum units or plans can be made.

One of the most promising procedures for deciding this basis of organization is for a group of teachers to go through the list of needs and see what types of vital purposes or problems are suggested. This will lead to certain patterns of organization that seem to afford a helpful basis for work. From this point, only trial will indicate the validity of such judgments.

One of the most helpful classifications of needs is set forth in the report of the Science Committee of the Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association. It is phrased in terms of four "basic aspects of living" as follows:

1. *Personal Living* (involving physical health, mental health, the need for self-assurance, the need for a workable philosophy of life, etc.).
2. *Immediate Personal-social Relationships* (including the need for: understanding of self, effective participation in home and family life, successful relations with age-mates of both sexes, etc.).
3. *Social-civic Relationships* (which involve a need for extending and deepening the areas of a pupil's social concern, responsible participation in social movements, and an increasing awareness of the social implications of the pupil's own activities).
4. *Economic Relationships* (the principal needs of the adolescent in this aspect of living are: emotional assurance of progress toward adult status through participation in adult economic affairs, vocational orientation, wise selection and use of goods, and participation as a citizen in the solution of basic economic problems.)[2]

This is only one of many excellent attempts to classify pupil needs into categories that will serve as the bases for subsequent curriculum construction or revision.

Other Bases for Recent Trends in Curriculum Reconstruction. It is impossible to satisfy all pupils' needs or to teach them all that they will need to know in facing problems that may arise at a future date. It is also impossible to know, and we cannot accurately predict, what social, economic, or political problems will confront them. Even if that were possible, the social-studies field is expanding so rapidly that one person could not possibly master all that he would need to know in meeting these issues. Apparently, then, two of the most important tasks of the social-studies teacher are: (1) to keep alive in each pupil the desire to learn and to know, to add unceasingly to his intellectual stature; (2) to teach him a sound method of facing and working toward the solution of his own personal problems and those of the community of which he is a part. This last presupposes a willingness on the part of the pupil to act on the basis of intelligence directed by a social sensitivity.

[2] Progressive Education Association, *Science in General Education*, Commission on Secondary School Curriculum, Chap. II, New York, 1938.

Important General Questions.—To achieve these purposes, a social-studies teacher must select materials suitable for a given group and for each pupil in that group. This material must articulate with the past experiences of the members of the group; otherwise, it does not become a part of the life of those individuals. This material and the subsequent experiences should also serve to stimulate in each pupil a desire for further personal growth. As yet, no universal criteria have been established to aid a teacher in selecting such material. There are, however, helpful questions that each teacher can ask as he selects the content and experiences of his course. For example, What problems must we face, and how will these help each pupil meet his most fundamental needs? In what sources will most of the materials needed for answering or solving these problems be found? What experiences would add to the value of the unit or project? These questions should then be broken down further to include some of the following:

Concerning the Scope of the Unit.—Concerning the basis and scope of a unit or project, a teacher should ask: Is it socially significant, based on a topic of immediate public interest or on a meaningful contemporary social situation? Does it throw light on contemporary problems? Does it bring the pupil into contact with new patterns of culture? Does the topic bring the pupil into contact with life stories of men whose lives had purpose and direction? Does it represent a synthesis of civic, social, and economic experiences? Does it present opportunities for the study of concrete problems in local, state, regional, national, and world areas and for building abstract generalizations about social relationships arising out of these studies? Does the topic present the community in action? Does it bring the related fields of knowledge and experience in, or possess potential ramifications that may lead to, significant areas of learning in other fields? Does it have unity?

In other words, the topic or program should be comprehensive in that it finds a place for a consideration of geography, history, civics, sociology, and economics, as well as other fields of study. It should be realistic in that every possible opportunity should be taken to make the topics considered tie up with the pupil's own life and the events of the day and year.

Concerning the Organization of Materials.—The following or similar questions should be asked concerning the type and organi-

zation of the materials that are being used: Do the directions state clearly where materials can be obtained? When references are given, are they complete and exact? Does it provide sufficient concrete, illustrative materials? Does it utilize materials as they occur in life? Does it refer the pupil to authoritative contemporary works other than texts? Does it utilize pictorial aids such as charts, lantern slides, maps, and motion pictures? Does it utilize documents, current periodicals, and newspapers? Is balance maintained between direct and vicarious experiences?

To sum up, the materials should include all those things which will permit and encourage the pupil to use his developing intellectual maturity with a satisfying degree of success and give him sound information and data upon which to make decisions or form generalizations or opinions.

Concerning Learning Procedures.—With regard to learning procedures, certain questions seem important: Does the problem provide an opportunity for the pupil to originate, plan, and direct his own activities as far as possible? Does it provide opportunities to choose, judge, and evaluate? Does it permit of cooperative activity on the part of all members of the group? Individual activities may be fitted into this group activity and seen by each worker as his personal contribution to the success of the group project. Does it provide an opportunity for projects based on individual interests or needs? Does it permit and encourage the development of specialized abilities of the pupil in socially valuable ways? Does it utilize the community as a laboratory and reproduce actual life situations as far as possible?

Concerning Outcomes.—The teacher should also raise certain questions regarding the outcomes of the proposed curriculum: Does it promote critical thinking? Does it cultivate a readiness for social change? Does it treat the deep underlying social forces, or does it treat merely symptoms? Does it cultivate a disposition for acting in behalf of the general welfare? Does it add to the pupil's appreciation of the contribution of other races or cultural groups—past or present?[3]

These are but a few of the questions that a social-studies teacher should ask in connection with each unit of work or problem or project contemplated or planned.

[3] Much helpful material of this sort is published by the Curriculum Laboratory at Ohio State University, Columbus.

Some Interesting Experiments and Trends.—In reconstructing a social-studies program along the lines indicated by the studies of pupils' needs, of the learning process, and of recent educational experiments, it is necessary to decide, in view of the local conditions, which plan or plans will probably most effectively facilitate learning on the part of the pupils.

For example, it is necessary to decide whether history, geography, economics, or civics is to be taught as a separate, isolated subject or merged into an integrated curriculum in which all lines of demarcation have been broken down and each subject loses its identity. If neither of these plans seems adequate or suitable, a decision must be made as to how far integration between the various subjects in the social studies should be carried. Also, how much correlating of the social studies and other subjects in the curriculum should be done in helping pupils to get a realistic picture of human relationships. Many experiments have been tried in an attempt to answer these important questions.

The Eight-year Study of the Progressive Education Association.—One of the most interesting and important of these is the Eight-year Experimental Study of the Progressive Education Association. This plan provided that, in 1933, a small group of secondary schools should be set free to engage in an experimental study of the work of the secondary schools. Colleges agreed to accept pupils from these schools for a period of years, beginning in 1936, without regard to the course-and-unit requirements generally in force for all pupils and without further examination. Selection of candidates from these schools was to be based upon a statement of the principal of the school and a carefully recorded history of the pupil's school life and his activities and interests, as well as results of various types of examinations and other evidence of the quality and quantity of the candidate's work. Scores on scholastic-aptitude, achievement, and other diagnostic, standardized tests given by the schools during the pupil's secondary-school course were usually included in this record.

Many innovations and changes were made in various school programs as a result of this study. In the social studies, at least four general changes appeared in the direction of:

1. Greater continuity. Pupils were led into continuous experiences throughout four and often six years in which skills, ideas,

concepts, and attitudes developed in earlier years were used again and again in new relationships and with new meanings.

2. Better integration. Teachers attempted to discover relationships between fields of study, to find the unity that belongs to the nature of things, and then to teach together those things which belong together.

3. More vital subject matter. More and more teachers sought to know and to understand their pupils better and to adapt their work more satisfactorily to their needs, interests, and capacities.

4. More willingness to try new materials and new activities. There was, and is, for example, much more use made of the community itself and of the so-called "extracurricular activities" than formerly in the various courses in the social studies.

The very important procedures and results of this study have been published and should be studied carefully by all social-studies teachers.

Other Revisions.—Other studies, such as those conducted by the state of Virginia and the state of Pennsylvania, are presenting interesting reconstructions of the traditional social-studies field.

Likewise, certain city schools and school systems such as Bronxville, New York; Tulsa, Oklahoma; and Denver, Colorado, are trying out new programs.

An Evaluation of These Innovations.—As yet, there is a lack of complete objective data relative to the merits of the different plans of organization. It can be said with certainty, however, that no one pattern has been developed that is best for a given school or that will meet all the personal needs of its pupils. It must be clearly realized that the importance and value of any program of education are measured by what actually takes place in the pupils' experiences and by the changes wrought in their behavior. This makes it even more imperative that social-studies teachers keep abreast of the experiments being tried. To be most effective, they must work into their own procedures the most valid materials and practices that have been or are being developed.

Integrated Courses.—The traditional method of teaching history and other social studies as separate, discrete courses, unrelated to each other or to any other courses, is familiar to all and needs no further elaboration. Correlation and fusion

have been adequately dealt with elsewhere in this book. One feature in curriculum making vitally affects the teaching of social studies and, therefore, merits the careful consideration of all teachers. This has to do with integrated courses.

An essential feature of this type of organization is that the social studies are often organized without the preservation of their identity, and a definite relationship is established to other subjects in the curriculum. The controlling influence in organizing materials in this manner is a problem issue, or topic of social significance.

An example of the unified, or integrated, social-studies course in contemporary problems is found in the eleventh and twelfth grades in Oakland, California, in which "an articulated two-year sequence of work for grades eleven and twelve around the 'major problems of America today'" is intended to absorb the traditional courses in American history, government, economics, and social problems.

In a completely integrated curriculum, there would be no subjects as such. Pupils would engage in a variety of activities through which they would reach the objectives for which the school was set up. These activities would be adjusted to the purposes, the capacities, and the needs of pupils at each age and grade level. Not only would the social studies be unified, but these subjects as a major field of instruction would largely disappear in form. No such curriculum exists in practice at the present time, however.

In discussing integration, it should be remembered that the most effective type of correlation and integration is the relating of materials that come naturally in connection with the normal development of a classroom project. New experiences are connected with previous information and knowledge often by cutting across subject-matter boundaries in order to make the materials of each unit or project more interesting and intelligible through their connection with other areas or with other subjects. The only integration that is effective in behavior, however, is that which takes place in the pupil's mind and experiences, and this is not insured by activities and materials that are integrated on paper only.

Types of Integrated Courses.—Some of the more useful types of integrated courses have been started by or developed as a

part of the Eight-year Study of the Progressive Education Association. The Curriculum Staff of this study has drawn up a brief description of some of these, the gist of which follows:

1. For purposes of identification, one of them is labeled the "culture-epoch" type. This is, perhaps, the least new of the many types.

In this, a study of all phases of the life of a people within a given epoch is made, for example, the culture of Egypt, Greece, Rome, or the Renaissance. The project is usually conducted by the social-studies teacher with the English teacher, working together on an integrated course which usually replaces the separate courses in these fields. They call in specialists in other fields, especially art and music, as needed.

The chief advantage of this type is that it vastly enriches the study of history. It tends to reduce emphasis upon political developments in favor of broader aspects of living. It provides a fairly simple problem in the analysis of a culture which can be handled within the usual materials and methods. It also lends itself to an active type of learning and to various forms of creative expression.

The gravest shortcoming is that it tends to disregard what may be the more important needs of pupils. After all, the emphasis is still on subject matter or the materials of instruction.

2. A second characteristic type of integration has been called the "broad-fields" type. In this, an effort has been made to unify the materials within a given field, such as English, social studies, science, and (in a few cases) mathematics, into one continuous, interrelated sequence in each field rather than to teach separate units in grammar, composition, literature, or speech, or in history, geography, civics, or economics or in biology, physics, or chemistry in the usual, traditional manner.

The chief advantage of this is that the method of teaching helps the pupil to integrate his experiences by reducing the number of separate fields of study. It also provides a greater continuity and permits a freer selection of materials related to present problems to develop needs and interests than under the old method of separate and often unrelated units within a given field.

This type of integrated course has been criticized by some because it preserves a definite subject-matter organization and also permits teachers to continue their old ways under new labels

rather than stimulating them to a reorganization of educational experiences by a study of broad life problems which cut across subject boundaries.

3. A third general type has resulted from the "integration of particular subjects." For example, English and social studies are studied together, or literature, art, and music are grouped together for study, or science and mathematics are studied as one, in so far as that is possible.

The advantages found in this plan are that new light is often thrown upon certain relationships between subjects; it focuses attention upon the purposes of a given course of study; and it also reduces the number of elements to be integrated in a pupil's experience.

The most common criticism is that it, too, still retains a definite subject-matter approach. It directs attention toward some rather fanciful relationships between subjects rather than toward the meeting of pupils' needs and promoting existing interests or developing new ones.

4. Another interesting development has been that of the "major-interest" type of integrated program. In this, a portion of the pupil's time, in some cases one-fourth or more of it, is devoted to a broad, socially oriented attack upon a single major interest, either academic or vocational. Work in all courses is related to this interest whenever possible.

This type has the advantage of having behind it the real driving power of an educational purpose (interest), avoiding superficiality, and it usually results in good work by relating a large number of school activities to a central purpose. It also makes real allowance for individual differences, being especially well-adapted to pupils who will not go to college.

In many ways, this does not differ markedly from the old differentiated curriculum, because the difficulty of providing for the large number of pupils' real interest usually results in providing four or five major courses and asking the pupils to choose their interest from among them. At times, a conviction has been expressed that this method excludes the development of a wide variety of interests.

5. A fifth type of integrated curriculum is developed around "common objectives." In this, teachers agree upon certain common, school-wide objectives, such as reflective thinking, social

adjustment, interests, health, and appreciations. These are clearly defined in terms of pupil behavior. Then an effort is made to provide for developing these aspects of behavior in all school activities. This plan has the advantage of focusing attention upon some of the underlying purposes of education that are so often overlooked in the traditional classroom situation and provides a measure of integration in terms of these purposes.

It has been criticized in that the program is not essentially changed, for it still leaves the pupil to integrate his experiences in history, mathematics, science, and so on, as best he can. This type of program should accompany another type of integrated plan in order to be most effective.

6. The last major classification is perhaps the most important, judged by the extent to which it deviates from the traditional curriculum. It has been designated by several names, the most common one being the "core curriculum." This will be more fully explained in the next chapter; a brief description of it will suffice at this point.

In actual practice, the core curriculum is centered around a basic course, meeting for a given time each day, usually the equivalent of two periods, and often coinciding with those set aside for English and the social studies. This course owes no allegiance to any subject-matter field or department but consists of a series of units or activities based on pupils' needs and interests classified under such headings as "personal," "family," "community," and "economic life." The units are selected and planned by pupils and teachers as they go along and organized into a very general framework suggested by the classification of needs and interests. They are usually directed by one teacher from any subject-matter field, depending on his vision of the possibilities of meeting pupils' needs, with occasional assistance of specialists in dealing with problems that require highly specialized competence.

This plan tends to make every activity meaningful to the participants by forcing the attention of the pupils and the teacher to the existing and developing interests and needs. It cuts across all subject-matter boundaries. It introduces materials neglected in the traditional courses and leaves out materials overemphasized in such courses. It appeals to pupils because they see the value

of it in their everyday living. It fosters the use of the community resources and develops creative expression in many media.

It is, however, difficult to find teachers qualified or willing to teach such courses. Many problems also arise in the selection of materials that pupils can use for many of their topics or problems. The program often lacks continuity. And, perhaps more often, it has been criticized because it tends toward spottiness in preparation for meeting some of life's problems, as well as toward superficiality.[4]

The present analysis does not pretend to be an exhaustive one. It is hoped that it will serve as a stimulus to the social-studies teacher to keep up to date on the intensely interesting and valuable work that is being done. In the last analysis, the classroom teacher should be the one to make the choice or to work out the adaptation of a given course of study. Needless to say, it should be the most effective one possible. Administrators, until quite recently, have shown a distrust for the intelligence of the classroom teacher. On the other hand, the standardized procedures, established by academicians remote from the actual scene of secondary instruction, have failed to produce the intelligent citizens that democracy requires. More and more, the central tendency of education today is to rely upon the teacher who is in first-hand contact with the chief classroom problems. It is, therefore, up to the teacher to plan his work carefully, making effective use of all the recent developments, remembering always that the effectiveness of his teaching will be measured by what actually takes place in the lives of his pupils.[5]

Summary.—The last two decades or more have been years of rather extensive experimentation in the field of the social studies. New materials, new methods, and new philosophies have been tried, and some of the material habitually used has been discarded or else revised. No completely objective evidence exists, however, as to the value of many of these experimental products, although the efforts to bring the curriculum up to date have been productive of much growth and thinking on the part of many teachers of the social studies.

[4] For many of these ideas, the writer is indebted to a talk by Paul Diederich to the workshop group at Sarah Lawrence College, August, 1937.

[5] The reader will find Harold Spear's *The Emerging High School Curriculum*, New York, 1940, stimulating in this connection.

In the past, courses of study frequently have been prescribed by academicians or "experts," and the content most often delimited by a single textbook. Seldom, if ever, were a teacher's opinions and experiences consulted either in establishing such courses or in revising them. By the beginning of the twentieth century, however, new discoveries in psychology and education brought about a trend toward affecting changes in the traditional social-studies curriculum.

In working out new programs of study, many social-studies teachers have been guided by several important factors. One is a more complete recognition of the fact that a class is composed of individuals, each possessing different abilities, interests, and funds of previous experiences to which a program of study must be directed if the teacher is to be successful with that group. The teachers are recognizing, too, that pupil needs, both personal and social, should play a more prominent part in curriculum planning, and they have sought methods for determining these needs and for introducing new instructional materials and teaching methods into the curriculum. Pupil participation in curriculum planning has become more common.

Another important factor in bringing about desirable changes is that teachers have become more careful in stating their course and unit objectives. The objectives more frequently serve as guideposts to the teaching and evaluation of the outcomes, too.

Many have become more critical of the materials and experiences offered in their courses. They are no longer satisfied to include certain things merely because they have "always been in the curriculum." They now seek to secure the most appropriate curriculum content by asking searching questions about everything that they plan to use. They are willing to experiment, to try new things, to use visual aids as well as the radio if such will add to the effectiveness of their course.

Then, too, teachers have become more interested in teaching their courses in a way to show the very natural relationship among the various phases of the social studies, as well as between the social studies and other subjects in the curriculum. Fusion, correlation, and various types of integrated courses, and even new courses such as the core course, have been a part of the experimental work.

No pattern predominates. More experimental work needs to be done, but the obligation of all teachers of social studies is to keep abreast of the interesting, valuable changes in the curriculums that are emerging.

Questions

1. What do you consider to be the most valid reasons for changing the social-studies curriculum in the secondary schools?
2. How were the traditional courses usually prescribed, and what do you consider the strengths and weaknesses of these procedures?
3. What are some of the fundamental concepts of the psychology of learning that have been instrumental in producing changes in the traditional curriculum?
4. What should be the role of "pupil needs" in educational planning and curriculum building?
5. List the methods by which pupil needs may be determined.
6. How should "needs" be classified?
7. What are some of the questions that a teacher should ask in determining the basis or the scope of a unit?
8. What are some of the questions that a teacher should ask concerning the organization of materials? the learning process? the outcomes?
9. What is the Eight-year Study? What are some of the achievements of this study that are already apparent in the social studies?
10. What is meant by integrated courses? What are some of the more common methods of bringing about an integration?
11. What is the responsibility of the teacher of social studies in planning his work and experiences with new materials?

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CHAPTER XVI

SOME NEW PLANS

New Plans Develop.—Many different attempts have been made to develop more effective programs for the social studies within the field of general education. One of the most important developments has been the change from a fixed, narrow information curriculum to one rich in functional knowledge and practical civic and sociological content.

Confusing and uncertain as all this curriculum revision and experimentation may be to some, it has been stimulating to most of the teachers who have participated. There is already evidence that new and better methods and materials are being developed, and more effective evaluation instruments are coming to the fore.

No one pattern is as yet predominant. We have not the necessary knowledge upon which to base an ideal curriculum. For this reason, a rigidly defined curriculum cannot be prescribed by experts and specialists. Each organization of courses must grow out of the actual schoolroom situations in which it is being used or developed. It is, therefore, necessary that the social-studies courses be developed with constant reference to the general educational objectives, to the aims of specific types of work, to the relation of the social studies to the rest of the curriculum, and to the knowledge available concerning adolescent psychology and the learning process.

Space does not permit a detailed consideration of a large number of these new plans. An attempt will be made to point out the character of some of the newest programs by giving limited samples of the form that they have taken or to summarize the more important general characteristics and the special emphases most frequently found. The first to be discussed will be the core curriculum.

The Core Curriculum Defined.—Some schools, having tried the coordination or integration of "subjects," are now making a direct attempt to meet the common needs of pupils by means of

the "core curriculum." This term has, as yet, no clear-cut meaning either in theory or in practice. However, as a basis for this discussion, the following is suggested: "The 'core' consists of a course or of those experiences designed to meet those common, recurring needs of young people which may be best organized without regard to conventional 'subjects' or 'courses.'"[1]

Special needs of the individual are taken care of in the elective portion of the curriculum; for even where a core program exists, the elective or specialized courses are quite important. However, if these elective classes are to meet the needs and interests of boys and girls as they should, it is necessary to determine the scope of the core curriculum so that the specialized fields will not unnecessarily duplicate the experiences and problems in the core.

Values of the Core Course.—As has been indicated, the core portion of the program should be based upon common functional needs and significant life problems. Since it is concerned with the solution of problems rather than with subject-matter content, it should cut across all subject-matter and departmental boundaries. By so doing, it is assumed that important relationships will be more easily apparent to the pupils. The highly departmentalized program that has grown up in the secondary schools tends to set up artificial divisions in matters that in life are closely interrelated.. Because various aspects of a problem have been treated in different classes at different times without regard to their interrelatedness, it often has been difficult for pupils to grasp the essential relationships involved and to have a sense that the whole is of vital significance to them. Recognition of this condition is not new. The combination of separate subjects into the social studies was an early attempt toward a partial correction of the matter. The core curriculum is an effort to bring about a more complete integration.

Responsibilities of Core-curriculum Teachers.—Where the lowering or actual breakdown of subject-matter barriers has taken place, the teachers have had to make many adjustments in their own ways of thinking and of doing things. No longer can the teacher go "his own way," responsible for only one small segment of the pupil's experience. His responsibilities now go beyond a narrow portion of the curriculum whose scope was

[1] Given by H. B. Alberty at a conference of the Progressive Education Association.

defined by a textbook or by the traditional organization of the subject. Instead, all the major functions of human living have become his concern. Now he is responsible, with the other representatives of the broad fields who make up his "team," for a major portion of the experiences that a given group or groups of pupils have while they are under the guidance of the school.

This means that the effective teacher today must make a constant effort to keep the curriculum abreast of the social changes taking place, must keep himself informed of new developments in education, and must work continuously with his colleagues in conceiving and providing appropriate learning experiences for his pupils.

Bases for Selecting Core Problems.—In planning for a core course, it has seemed desirable to include the consideration of problems which:

1. Are relatively common to large groups of pupils, if not all.
2. Grow out of the interests and needs of the pupils.
3. Are persistent or recurring in human experience or are related to or illustrative of such problems, for example, housing, public health, and communication.
4. Are not likely to be handled well by any of the traditional subjects, for example, family relationships.
5. Require, or would profit by, cooperative planning, teaching, and learning. That is, it would permit a large degree of planning by the pupils as a group, by the pupils with the teachers, and by pupils working alone.
6. Call for exploration in several areas of experience, for example, health in biology, recreation, the home, sex, care of children, public health, health hazards in industry, the consumer, and safety.
7. Require consideration of various points of view in addition to factual data, for example, race relations. Such considerations should aid pupils in developing socially desirable behavior patterns as well as contribute to the continuous growth in knowledge and understanding that will enable pupils to cope successfully with the issues and problems encountered both inside and outside school.
8. Require larger blocks of time than the conventional periods.
9. Call for relatively continuous experience rather than a unit course.

10. Extend the application of such objectives as techniques of thinking, work habits, study skills, social sensitivity, and creativeness over a wider range of experience than the traditional subjects. They should provide a variety of experiences suited to pupils of different abilities and varying needs and should be suited to the maturational level of the pupils who are going to develop them. Also, they should permit creative and pupil-initiated work on the part of the individual pupils.

11. Do not require extended drill in specific skills, for example, taking three months off for drill in typing or percentage or in cabinet making.

12. Do not require sudden extension or drastic modifications of present levels of work habits and study skills, for example, a sudden shift from lesson learning to complete responsibility.

13. Require orientation in a wide range of relationships and implications for their significance to become apparent, for example, the corporations—as related to mass production, advertising, absentee ownership, labor problems, propaganda, war, imperialism, pressure groups, and so on.[2]

Two Plans for Selecting Problems.—One of the plans frequently used was first suggested by a committee of the Progressive Education Association reporting on *Science in General Education.* Under this plan, "four basic aspects of living" were used to classify the problems, and teachers drawing upon their own experiences and the interests and needs of their pupils select the problems that they consider most pertinent.[3]

The following topics might be included in a core curriculum using the four "basic aspects of living" suggested by the Science Committee in classifying adolescent needs:

I. Personal living
   A. Personal health (mental and physical)
      Heredity, native endowments, habits, learning, normal variability, eugenics, developing personality traits, etc.

[2] Some of these criteria were suggested by workers at the Progressive Education summer workshops, some by studies of various core curriculums, and others by a mimeographed sheet drawn up by the Curriculum Staff of the Eight-year Study.

[3] These are also discussed at length in Progressive Education Association, *The Social Studies in General Education,* Commission on Secondary School Curriculum.

B. Man and nature

Man in relation to lower animals, organic evolution, astronomy, religion, ethics, anthropology, relativity of truth, etc.

II. Immediate personal-social relationships

A. The family and civilization

Problems of individual adjustment, social relations, economic problems, budgeting, standards of living, improvement of home life, food, clothing, nutrition

B. Human relations

Growth and development, sex, mating, dating, group activities, clubs, etc.

C. Living in school

Adjustment to school life, social responsibilities, activity in student government, attitudes toward teachers, care of building and grounds, participation in curriculum planning, and the like

III. Social-civic relationships

A. The community

Health, housing, transportation, communication, taxation, government, schools, recreation, participation in improving community life, changing concept of the community

B. Changing conceptions of government

Government and human welfare, protection of the individual against exploitation, etc.

C. Types of social and political organizations

Democracy, Fascism, Communism, etc. Effects upon human welfare

D. Getting along with other races and nations

IV. Economic relationships

A. Conflicting economic systems

Capitalism, Communism, Socialism, trade unionism, consumer cooperatives, etc.

B. Impact of technology upon living

Machine-age production, communication, transportation, distribution of goods, from scarcity to abundance, etc.

C. Vocational orientation

Study of occupations, professions, social responsibilities, culture through vocations, etc.

D. Consumer problems
Advertising, installment buying, banking, child labor, sweatshops, consumer cooperatives, etc.

A second rather commonly used plan is sometimes designated as the scope-and-sequence plan. The plans by which many states are attempting to revise their curricula might well be listed under this heading. When this plan is used, a committee of teachers examine studies of youth needs and come in contact with youth directly. This committee then suggests for each grade appropriate general experience areas. Problems are then suggested which are to be considered by the entire class.

Further Consideration of the Core.—It should be realized that the core course involves a more basic reconstruction than a mere rearrangement of blocks of subject matter. The combination of two subjects, such as English and social studies, into a course called social living may have real value. However, the potentialities of the core course will not be realized if the principle of development and organization of learning experiences is not shifted from the subject basis to the needs of society and of the individual as the basis. Subject matter is now regarded as a means to the end of more abundant living for the pupil, instead of as an end in itself. The teacher must take the pupil as he is and select from the broad fields available those experiences which the pupil in question needs for his maximal development. In other words, the core curriculum, supplemented by the elective subjects, should be such as to enable the pupil most effectively to acquire the skills, understanding, knowledge, attitudes, appreciations, loyalties, and modes of behavior that will enable him to live wholesomely, significantly, and adequately in terms of all the basic functions of human living.

The amount of time given to the core program, per day, per week, and in terms of the number of years, varies from school to school. No set pattern has evolved. The important thing is that satisfactory provision be made for meeting the needs of the boys and girls in a given school or group. Experimentation with different forms of organization is still needed, though certain common characteristics of the core curriculum have become manifest.

The Core Conference Hours.—In most schools where a course of this type has been developed, the teachers who work with a

given group meet together regularly. At these meetings, they consider the problems of their particular group and discuss classroom procedures, pupil-teacher planning, evaluation instruments, and problems of guidance. The whole program centers around these conference hours, for it is here that decisions are made as to the problems to be studied; the value and advisability of certain lines of procedure are thrashed out; how and when to terminate a unit is decided upon; and plans for new units are made. The conference hour offers many helpful opportunities for guidance, for the judgment of several teachers who have known a pupil through two or three years of association is much sounder than the opinion of one teacher after a limited acquaintanceship of a year or less. Through this conference hour, too, teachers usually learn to work more cooperatively with members of other departments. They also gain a greater appreciation of the work that other teachers are doing and learn to recognize the educational contributions made by departments other than their own.

Paul Diederich of the Curriculum Staff of the Eight-year Study, says this about the core curriculum:

> It is now fairly clear on what lines this development should proceed within the next few years. The culture-epoch, the mésalliance of history and English simply does not work and has been abandoned by almost every school which has tried it. Instead, it seems wiser to orient the core work of the junior high school, and preferably of the elementary school as well, around the general question: "What things do we need and want, and how do we propose to get them, as individuals and as a society?" This includes material things, such as food, clothing, shelter, fuel, power, tools, basic materials, fabricated products, transportation, communication, etc.; intermediate things, like recreation, health service, money, credit, exchange and others; up to the spiritual values, like health, freedom, justice, scientific knowledge, love and beauty. It would include getting these things as individuals, as members of a family, as citizens, and as workers. No generation of mankind has ever provided these in such sufficient abundance as to make anything like the good life possible for the majority of its citizens. Unless these pupils do a better job than their forefathers, many of them can count on suffering deprivation of many of the elementary decencies of a civilized existence. They will have poor food, poor homes, poor family life, unwholesome recreation, poor health, exploitation, injustice, unemployment and war. On the other hand, if every succeeding generation

of children began early and earnestly to study how their society went about getting the good things of life, analyzed its mistakes and weaknesses, and began hopefully to think about better ways of getting these things, what a difference it would make within a few generations. The course of study would involve relatively little book learning, compared with the present one, but much more prolonged and fruitful contact with the work of the world, endeavoring always to learn how things are done, and how they may be done better, and what are the obstacles in the way. The unquestioning admiration of the wonders of modern technology, which is a common outcome of most excursions, should be avoided; also the despair with which many socially-minded teachers view the mess we are in. The outcome desired is a hopeful awareness of the problems to be solved; to come to regard them as so many opportunities is to make one's life a real service to mankind. . . .

The core course ordinarily occupies only two periods of the school day. An additional two periods are devoted to electives, including many of the so-called "extracurricular" activities on an equal basis with any other educative activity. Most of these electives can now meet only two or three times a week. Teachers who formerly thought this impossible are now finding out that it can be done, especially when their attention is focused not upon the mastery of a given body of content but upon the establishment of continuing interests and desirable personal qualities. The other two periods of the school day are commonly given over to physical education and free time. During this free time an effort is made to permit the pupil to develop his special interests, particularly through work in the library, show, and studio, and any other laboratory which may be available.[4]

Examples of Core Curriculums.—Before giving examples of the practical working of the core curriculum, it should first be said that the content of such a program will change somewhat from year to year, because the life of the community changes and the problems that arise are different in many respects from those which existed before. The problems discussed will also change, because the pupils bring to the course different experiences, interests, and needs.

Furthermore, it should be remembered that the core course is not intended to take the place of special-interest areas in which the pupil develops his individual capacities and aptitudes and satisfies special desires and needs. There will always be a place

[4] PAUL B. DIEDERICH, *Contributions of the Eight-year Study* (mimeographed), pp. 4–5.

in secondary education for the intensive treatment of scientific, literary, aesthetic, and practical needs through separate subject-matter courses. The core curriculum should be the center around which all the special fields should be organized, however. It should provide that contact with separate subjects which would stimulate the pupil to discover ways and means of pursuing his interests in the light of his capacities and needs under the guidance of those who know him well.

East High School, Denver.—In Denver, Colorado, the East High School has developed a very successful core curriculum which includes much of the work usually taught in English and the social studies.

The work of the core program is begun by pupils in the tenth grade and continued through the last three years of the secondary school. The time allotment is approximately three hours a day in the tenth grade, with a reduced time given to it in the eleventh and twelfth grades. Teachers from various subject fields plan cooperatively the work for the group. In general, four days a week are devoted to the more formal class activities with the fifth day kept free for personal and group conferences, field trips, and cooperative planning.

The subject matter of the core course is related to the problems that the school is expected by the community to present to the boys and girls. No attempt is made to classify the subject matter according to the usual departmental divisions. When pupils are found to be in need of increased skill in reading, writing, speaking, or the like, they are given special instruction as a part of the core program. In all the work, an effort is made to provide experiences that will promote democratic living. Pupils also have considerable choice of elective subjects in the regular courses such as mathematics, science, and English.

A continuous counseling program is provided for by an arrangement whereby teachers remain with a group during the three-year period of the senior high school.[5]

Manual Training High School, Denver.—In a report given in October, 1939, Maurice R. Ahrens of the Manual Training High School said that the core was that area of the school curriculum

[5] An account of the East High School's program can be found in "Plan for an Enlarged Core Program in East High School," *Denver Public Schools*, January 18, 1938, pp. 1–10.

set up to help all students meet the needs, common to all of them, in facing the problem of living in a democratic society. He then indicated the following problems as constituting the work of the core course in his high school: "Living in the home; personal and social living; recreation; communication; consumer problems; social-civic living; health; safety; vocational adjustment; transportation; orientation; personal living; planning one's education; aesthetic appreciation."[6]

Tulsa Public Schools: Core Curriculum.—The Tulsa public-school system became a participant in the Eight-year Study of the Progressive Education Association in 1933. Since that time, it has carried on extensive experimentation with its curriculum in an effort to make it more effective for all pupils.

In 1936, a Curriculum Steering Committee was established to recommend to the secondary-schools staff curriculum adjustments, administrative procedures, and teaching practices that it believed would effect an improvement of the existing educational status. This group concluded that they should reorganize the curriculum on lines other than those of traditional subject matter. They therefore presented to the school administrators and teachers the following curriculum organization, outlined very briefly below.

Core: Human Relationships

1. Building and maintaining physical and mental health
2. An understanding of the fundamental principles and institutions of a democratic society
3. Knowledge of the interaction between man and the natural environment
4. Fundamental skills and knowledge of communication
5. Acquaintance with and opportunities for self-expression through creative activities
6. Individual guidance and counseling

In making its reports, the Study Committee recommended that the six original areas of the core curriculum be reduced to the following three major areas:

1. Personal development
2. Development toward mature participation in a democratic society

[6] From a report by Maurice H. Ahrens to a meeting of the secondary schools and colleges in the Eight-year Study, in Atlantic City, October, 1939.

3. Development of the essential skills of communication and expression

The Committee believed that these areas were the more logical focal points around which to organize the curriculum than the original six points.

Elective Courses

1. Working toward vocational competency
2. Continued study of science, mathematics, art, music, languages, social problems, English, literature, dramatics, etc.; recreational skills and remedial work required as the need was revealed through the core experiences.[7]

The Committee indicated that the core portion of the curriculum would consist of those experiences and activities which would develop in the individual the understanding, skills, attitudes, and appreciations necessary for effective living in a democratic society. Pupils select from the areas in the elective portion of the curriculum those things especially of which the work in the core showed need or in which an interest had been developed.

When the objectives of any part of the core curriculum had been achieved, the pupil transferred that portion of his time to one of the areas in the elective portion of the curriculum.

The Tulsa core curriculum and the experimental work being done with it are among the most significant, large-scale experimental work that has been and is being accomplished in the United States with the secondary-school curriculum.

The University High School Core Curriculum, Oakland, California.—For several years, the University High School has been engaged in building a core curriculum. The teachers were interested in revising their work in terms of meeting the needs of pupils, so that the subject matter became a means to an end rather than an end in itself. With this in mind, they have developed a very valuable core curriculum.

It was felt that the core course should be an activity course rather than one for the mere accumulation of information and that the emphasis should stress the development of the individual rather than the acquiring of any particular skills. The topics

[7] *Building a Core Curriculum in the Tulsa Public Schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma,* pp. 1–7, Tulsa Public Schools, 1938.

taken up in this course—problems, such as healthful living, budget making, courtesy, democratic citizenship—were those which needed to be taught yet were such that they did not fall logically within a subject-matter field. Thus, without materially changing the method of teaching some of the courses, the core program was built around those things which every adolescent needed to know. The grade placement of these topics was carefully considered in order to teach them at the level where they would be most significant and profitable.

Careful planning by the teacher is a valuable part of this core program, as it is with most of those developed so far. One of the important aspects of such a course is the guidance given to the pupils as a result of the shared observations and the judgments of the teachers who work so closely with this group.

Areas of Human Activity Defined.—Another type of curriculum, closely related to the so-called "core curriculum," is being developed in several states and by many individual schools. This new development goes by several different names, but all have as their "center of interest" what are classified or called "areas of human experience," or "areas of human activity." This is not a new course, as is the core course, but it represents a somewhat different way, or basis, of organizing the social studies.

In establishing this type of curriculum, the social-studies teachers and administrators who have been working on it have first to decide upon what areas of experience are common to all people, even though the experience as such may differ somewhat from individual to individual. What achievements comprise effective living? What are an individual's activities as carried on in organized society? What does one actually do? An example might be cited. All normal people have a language that they use for purposes of communication. This experience of communicating is common, then, to all normal people, even though one speaks German, another French, and a third English.

The selection of these common areas rests on the assumption that what man does today is really an outgrowth of what man has always done, that we are greatly influenced by our social and physical heritage, and that through the intelligent use of this heritage we are able to carry on the same basic activities today as did the people of ancient times, although we carry on those activities in a vastly different way.

After establishing these areas of common experience, the curriculum makers must decide upon which phases of each of these areas will be studied. Obviously, each area is too large to be covered in its entirety by secondary-school pupils, and, therefore, only selected aspects of it can be studied at this level. In each of these areas of human activity are many vital problems and activities of life which can be made the basic content of the curriculum, and a discriminating teacher will have no difficulty in choosing those best suited to the needs of the group that he is teaching.

The next general step is to locate the various aspects of these problems to be studied at the age or grade level at which they will be most effectively dealt with. In other words, shall the study of communication be carried on in the first, fifth, ninth, or twelfth grades or some of those intervening? Or is it the type of problem that should be studied at each of the various grades as part of the work at that level? Each problem must be located at the place in which the study of it will be successful and profitable.

Some Types of the Areas-of-human-activity Curricula.—In many respects, these curricula do not differ from many of those described in the previous section. The main features of a few of them will show the basis upon which a revision of the social-studies curriculum is being tried.

Mississippi Program for the Improvement of Instruction.—O. I. Frederick, with a committee of teachers, made an analysis of society for the Mississippi State Curriculum Study. They set down the basic activities and things that people actually do. After grouping and classifying these, they reworded them as "doing" activities; and, as such, the nine major areas of human activity can easily form the basis of an entire social-studies curriculum.

The nine areas include:

1. Protecting life and health (medical science, life health, conservation, mental health, safety, protection against disease, accidents, fears).
2. Getting a living (vocations, production, distribution, consumption, labor, industry, unemployment, capital, wealth, income, etc.).
3. Making a home (parental responsibilities, childhood and youth, child rearing, private property, conservation of property,

sex, marriage, courtship and love, eugenics, housing, food, clothing, consumer problems, parent education, position of women).

4. Expressing religious impulses (morality, religious organization, the church, religious practices, philosophy of life).

5. Satisfying the desire for beauty (fine arts, mythology, aesthetics, literature, charm and good manners, etc.).

6. Securing an education (mental efficiency, self-improvement, the press, cinema, radio, how to study, folkways, mores, and the like).

7. Cooperating in social and civic action (international relations, social relationships, citizenship, government, justice, crime and punishment, social service, taxation, law, democracy, farm relief, social protection, war, conservation, extension of freedom, the Constitution, legislation, population, and so on).

8. Engaging in recreation (leisure-time activities, hobbies, etc.).

9. Improving material conditions (communication and transportation, invention, exploration, science, scientific knowledge, natural wealth, etc.).[8]

The Arkansas Plan.—The state of Arkansas has been working for some time on the problem of curriculum revision and has tentatively adopted the following "centers of interest" for the junior and the senior high school:

Seventh grade: How man controls his environment and adjusts himself to it.

Eighth grade: How invention and discovery have changed man's environment.

Ninth grade: How society is developed through the agencies of the community.

Tenth grade: The rise of modern civilization and culture.

Eleventh grade: The development of American civilization and culture.

Twelfth grade: Contemporary problems of American life.

All these topics give the social-studies teacher a great deal of opportunity to work with the English and science teachers on problems that are vital and interesting to adolescents.

This plan has been criticized on the basis that the last four centers suggest community civics, world history, United States

[8] O. I. FREDERICK, and L. J. FARQUEAR, "Areas of Human Activity," *Journal of Educational Research*, 30 (May, 1937), pp. 672–679.

history, and problems of American democracy. The outline does indicate considerable variation from the traditional materials, however, and makes considerable addition of suitable materials from other fields, but the general plan does not involve a very great shift from the present basic arrangements of courses as they are commonly found. However, the evidence is not yet clear that a radical deviation from the traditional is inherently better than a program that adheres a little more closely to the usual subject organization. Therefore, many believe that this is not necessarily an indictment of this plan.

The Virginia Plan.—Several years ago, the state of Virginia began the revision of its curriculum in the social-studies field. The program for each grade was to be built around a "center of interest" and was to be developed in terms of selected "aspects" of this areas. The scope of this plan will be made clearer by the following quotation:

> In outlining the scope of work for the Virginia curriculum "centers of interest" are selected to serve as major limitations for the work of each grade. Four criteria were employed as a basis of selection. (1) The center of interest should exert significant influence on the functional phases of social life. (2) There should be numerous objects and activities within the area of the centers of interest that are of interest to children on the level for which the center of interest serves as a limitation. (3) There should be adequate instructional materials of suitable difficulty to develop the center of interest on the level for which it serves as a limitation. (4) The center of interest should provide for maximum growth of desirable concepts and should offer opportunity for participation by the pupils in socially significant undertakings.[9]

The activities carried on in each grade are chosen to illuminate selected aspects of the center of interest. These aspects include the following: protection and conservation of life, property and natural resources, production of goods and services and distribution of the returns of production, consumption of goods and services, communication and transportation of goods and people, recreation, expression of aesthetic impulses, education, extension of freedom, integration of the individual, exploration.

These aspects correspond to the eleven major functions of social life designated by this group to the understanding of which the work of each grade was expected to contribute.

[9] *Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools*, Chap. I.

The following center of interest has been selected for each grade:

First grade: Home and school life.

Second grade: Community life.

Third grade: Adaptation of life to environmental forces of nature.

Fourth grade: Adaptation of life to advancing physical frontiers.

Fifth grade: Effects of inventions and discoveries upon our living.

Sixth grade: Effects of machine production upon our living.

Seventh grade: Social provision for cooperative living.

Eighth grade: Adaptation of our living through nature, society, mechanical inventions, and discoveries.

Ninth grade: Agrarianism and industrialism and their effects on our living.

Tenth grade: Effects of changing culture and changing social institutions upon our living.

Eleventh grade; Effects of a continuously planning social order upon our living.

In addition to the grade material that constitutes the bulk of the Virginia course of study and that cuts across conventional subject lines, each pupil is evaluated for the acquisition of those abilities over which a reasonable control may be developed by the instruction received in carrying on the units of this work. These include such things as the ability to make wise use of time, the ability to use a timetable, the ability to observe processes and personnel in an industrial plant.

The Pennsylvania Plan.—In the summer of 1937, the Committee on Social Studies of the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction began to work on a social-studies program for the public elementary and secondary schools of the state. They began by formulating certain guiding principles, after which the Committee prepared a tentative chart showing the scope and sequence of a social-studies program. They included in this suggested phases of the work to be developed.

This program was based on nine areas of human experience that seem fundamental to all human activity. A unit placed under any one of the major themes may have a bearing on several or all of the other areas. This is necessarily so because there

are interests and experiences common to all people in any community and of any age, and it is difficult to draw a fixed line between these areas of activity.

The basic assumption underlying this program is that schools engaged in educating youth for fuller enjoyment of life should be aware of these activities and prepare young people for them. The plan presented in the outline centers about those problems which are significant to our present-day society and which will probably continue to be important in the future. These problems deal, in many cases, with controversial issues, but this does not mean that either teachers or pupils need take sides. Rather it is hoped that a candid and open investigation of the issues will be made and that such conclusions as are drawn will be tentative and subject to revision in the light of further study.

This program recognizes four different levels of pupil attainment—the early elementary, later elementary, junior secondary, and senior secondary. One large area of interest is to be the field of concentration for each of these different attainment levels.

The work of each grade is expected to contribute to the nine major areas of human experience to be studied in conjunction with each of these fields of concentration. These major areas of human experience include protecting and improving life and health, earning a living, making a home, expressing spiritual and emotional impulses, expressing aesthetic impulses, securing an education, cooperating in social and civic action, adjusting to and improving the material environment, and engaging in recreation.

Thus, each of these nine major areas would be studied in the early elementary period (which includes kindergarten and grades one, two, and three) as a part of their concentration on the general problem of "Exploring and Adventuring in the Immediate Environment: Home, School, Community." In the later elementary period (which includes grades four, five, and six), the group would consider the nine areas of human experience in conjunction with the study of the problem of "Exploring and Adventuring in an Expanding Environment: Community, State, Communities in Other Places and Times." Likewise, in the junior secondary period (including grades seven, eight, and nine), the consideration of the problem of the "Adaptation of the Individual to the Modern world through Scientific and Social Devel-

opment" would be made in terms of these same areas of human activity. In the senior secondary period (grades ten, eleven, and twelve), the group concentrates on the problems growing out of "Individual and Group Relationships in Contemporary Society"; and, again, the study is made in terms of the nine areas.

The suggestion is made that any unit should begin with a study of the current and local phases of the problem, because what now exists is more significant to intelligent living than that which has preceded, important as that may be.

The University of Wisconsin High-school Plan.—This plan has several interesting and rather unique features all of which are of a rather experimental nature. Besides including experiences designed particularly for intellectual development, it has also a section that is functional in that it aims directly at fitting the pupils for problems that arise in the process of adjusting to the environment.

Resting on the assumption that the school should give considerable attention to the complex problems of present-day living to which normal youth must adjust, they have developed four constants: education for community living, education for health, education for the use of leisure, education for vocation and college life.

> The courses in health and community living meet for two or three clock hours per week in the sophomore and junior years, depending on program complexities. In the senior year, the class in health meets two hours per week and that in community living one hour per week. The third constant, vocation and college life, meets one hour a week throughout the three years of the senior high school. The fourth constant, leisure time, has an irregular schedule that varies with the kind of work being done and with the schedules of the persons who conduct it. In this constant are included two hours a week in the tenth and eleventh grades, under a teacher of English. The student has time, of course, to carry the usual elective courses in accord with his special needs.[10]

This plan has been quite successful in securing a unit of subject matter and a functional emphasis, because it makes it easily possible to disregard usual subject-matter divisions. Teachers are entirely free to draw upon subject matter from any source in

[10] An account of this program can be found in an article by H. H. Ryan, "The Experimental Curriculum at Wisconsin High School," *Junior-Senior Clearing House*, 10 (January, 1936), pp. 301–307.

seeking solutions to problems. The very breadth of the constants, however, has made it necessary for the teacher in charge to secure the assistance of other teachers and of persons outside the faculty.

This program has been carried on with an experimental group of about twenty college-preparatory pupils in each of the three grades. It has been in operation for several years, and the results are being evaluated carefully.

Social-process Approach Defined.—In addition to the core curriculums and those based on a study of the major areas of human experience, there is a third basis upon which it has been suggested that schools might revise their social-studies curriculum. As yet, this has not gained the widespread interest or acceptance that the other two plans have received. This basis is best known as the "Social-process approach" and is most forcefully expounded by L. C. Marshall and R. M. Goetz in *Curriculum-making in the Social Studies.*

L. C. Marshall, the senior author, regards his proposals as "something more than a basis of a curriculum proposal; it is a social theory." Marshall, like many others, deplores the lack of a generally accepted philosophy of the social-studies curriculum and considers his "social-process approach" a basis for a better synthesis and revision although not the final answer to the difficult problem of a more adequate, satisfactory curriculum in the social-studies field.

Among the more important assumptions underlying this approach are three that should be mentioned: (1) It is possible to find a rather simple but far-reaching pattern by which to classify, or to put into perspective and order, the tremendous amount of material available in the social studies. (2) These patterns have such a permanence that even the spectacular changes of the past decades or centuries will fall into perspective as being merely the current manifestations of basic activities that have characterized the social functioning of mankind from time immemorial. (3) These larger, far-reaching, and enduring patterns underlying all of man's larger group activities are also manifest in his personal, face-to-face contacts.

Assuming these to be true, it is felt that an awareness of these underlying patterns gives an understanding of the steps that must be taken in furthering human welfare.

The social-process approach establishes six basic patterns for classifying the content of any social studies course: (1) the process of adjusment to the external physical world; (2) the process of biological continuance and conservation, (3) the process of guiding human motivation and aspiration, (4) the process of developing and operating the agencies of social organization, (5) the process of securing and directing cultural continuance and cultural change, (6) the process of personality molding.

In dealing with each of these areas, the teacher using the plan would appropriate materials from many different fields, that is, biology, physiology, psychology, anthropology, sociology, economics, political science, philosophy, geography, ethics, and others, disregarding entirely the traditional subject-matter boundaries whenever that is necessary.

Some of the advantages claimed for this approach are that it will make more meaningful the multitudinous details of social living; it will draw upon the experimental background of the pupils; it will serve to give them an overview of the data of group living of all times, places, and cultures; and it will help the teacher choose with greater discrimination his instructional materials.

This approach has been endorsed by the Commission on History of the College Entrance Examination Board as the basis for revising many of its examinations. The Committee has defined four units of history for the secondary school as follows: (1) ancient and medieval history of Western Europe from the beginnings to the beginning of the sixteenth century, (2) modern European history, (3) American history, (4) contemporary civilization; and it recommends that these four be the basis of any curriculum of the social studies.[11] History is very broadly defined.

Conclusions.—Again, it should be reiterated, there is no single method of organizing the materials of the social studies that stands above all others, no one way to present them most effectively to meet the needs of the boys and girls in the classroom. The school should test the value of a program or proposed formula in the light of the problems of its pupils, the resources of the school, the nature of the community that it serves, the section

[11] Conyers Read (Chairman), "Final Report and Recommendations of the Commission on History to the College Entrance Examination Board," *Social Studies*, 27 (December, 1936), pp. 546–566.

of the country in which it is located, its peculiar parent-pupil body, and its stage of educational development.

Much has been said in recent years about correlation, fusion, integration, and core courses. There is a great deal to be said in favor of the attempt to step across subject-matter boundaries in the effort to make the work in the various social studies meaningful and helpful to each pupil. It is easy to fall into a common error in these attempts, however, an error that new teachers are particularly prone to make. It is true that a carefully planned school program will help a pupil integrate his experiences. Merely scrambling subjects does not guarantee an integrated educational experience, however, and this seems to be the error common to the thinking of so many teachers in the field. They seem to assume, erroneously, that because a subject has lost part or all of its identity, it is contributing significantly toward helping a pupil gain a unified, integrated education. For a subject so to lose its identity is not a valid measure of this function, and it leads too many teachers to try to fit their courses into a picture rather than to build a program in which subjects are of only secondary importance.

The important thing in all curriculum planning and revision is that the organization of it be flexible enough so that no artificial barriers between subjects will prevent or restrict pupils and teachers from securing the information or data on those problems or developing those activities which form the basis of the social-studies curriculum.

Summary.—In the experimental efforts to bring about more effective programs for the social studies, one of the most important developments has been a change from a fixed, rigid information curriculum, prescribed by experts, to a richer, more functional one devised in many instances by the teachers who are doing the actual teaching. As yet, no one pattern is widely agreed upon. Nor need there be. Each social-studies program should grow out of and be adapted to the needs of a particular group.

One of the newest and most interesting developments is the core curriculum. The core has been well defined as a "course designed to meet those common, recurring needs of young people which may be best organized without regard to conventional "subjects" or courses. The core, then, would study such prob-

lems as communication, transportation, personality development, and health. Where such a core course exists, the elective, departmentalized subjects in English, mathematics, and others, are expected to take care of the special, individual needs of pupils. The teachers of these elective subjects should plan carefully with the core teachers in order to avoid a needless, wasteful repetition of subject matter and experiences.

The core cuts across all subject-matter boundaries in securing information and data for the problems being studied. This obligates the teacher to go beyond the confines of his own narrow subject-matter area and to work cooperatively with teachers of other subjects in planning the work and guiding the pupils. In this connection, the conference hour during which the core teachers get together to plan, revise procedures, and discuss common educational problems and policies is a very valuable feature of the new educational experiment.

Many public-school systems such as those at Tulsa and Denver and several individual schools like the University High School at Oakland, California, are doing significant work in experimenting with the core curriculum.

Another type of curriculum revision that is recognized widely is most commonly referred to as the areas of human experience. This is not a new course of study, as is the core, but it represents a new plan of organizing the social-studies program. Instead of each of the social studies being taught as separate, discrete courses almost entirely unrelated, each is expected to contribute as it is needed to a fuller understanding of certain common areas of human activity. These areas, which are common to all persons in all places, include such aspects as making a home, getting a living, securing an education, protecting life and health. Several state programs such as the Virginia, Pennsylvania, Mississippi, and Arkansas as well as many separate school programs are making this the bases of their curriculum developments and revisions.

A third plan for revising the social-studies curriculum is known as the social-process approach. Under this plan, certain basic cultural patterns form the framework of study of the social studies in each grade in which it is taught. These patterns have persisted from earliest times to the present and include such principles as the process of adjustment to the external world,

the process of biological continuance and conservation, and the process of guiding human motivation and aspiration. The pupils concentrate their study on man's efforts to meet certain fundamental needs and conform to these continuing social processes. Though interesting, the social-process approach has not received widespread recognition or acceptance.

There is much need for further experimentation in order to make the social-studies program more effective in educating pupils for more satisfying personal living and more effective social participation.

Questions

1. What have been some of the underlying reasons for so much experimentation in the social studies? Do you believe that these efforts have been necessary or justified?
2. How is the "core curriculum" defined?
3. What are the bases upon which the problems of the core course are selected?
4. How do the core and the elective courses work together?
5. What are the reasons for the values of the conference hour in the core curriculum?
6. What is meant by "areas of human experience?"
7. In what fundamental ways does this program differ from the core courses?
8. What are some of the commonly accepted areas of human activity?
9. What is meant by the social-process approach to the social studies?
10. How does it differ from the core course and from the areas-of-human-activity approach?
11. How should you determine which approach you would use in teaching a class in the social studies?

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INDEX

A

Abilitics of pupils, 21, 22, 24, 25, 29, 32, 40, 281, 287, 292, 297, 298
Activities, 5
in civics, 143, 151
classroom, 272, 287, 296
extracurricular, 297
in government, 146, 151–152
Activity unit, 55–56, 59
Adamic, Louis, *Native's Return*, 130
Adams, John Quincy, 68
Adaptation, to community characteristics, 10, 15
to individual differences, 10, 15
to maturity of learner, 9, 15
Adolescence, vocabulary changes at, 28
Adolescent, psychology of the, 290
Advertising, 293
Africa, 87, 239
Agricultural improvement, 143
Ahrens, Maurice R., 298
Aims, of American education, 155, 156
in American history, 63–64
in civics, 139–140
of core curriculums, 291, 295, 296, 298, 299, 300, 311
in current events, 218
in economics, 176, 177, 188
of education in a democracy, 6–7, 14
educational, 270, 271, 273, 276, 277, 287, 290, 293, 306
in European history, 83–84
in geography, 236, 238
in international relations, 120–121
in problems of American democracy, 156–157, 158, 159, 162, 170
Aims, of social studies, 7–8, 15, 277, 287
in sociology, 193, 196–197, 201, 212
in world history, 102–103
Alsace-Lorraine, 237
Ambitions of pupils, 273
America Begins Again, Katherine Glover, 106, 180
America, discovery of, 68
American Economic History, H. U. Faulkner, 73
American education, aims of, 155, 156
American Geographical Society, 245
American Historical Association, report of the Commission on the Social Studies, 156
report of the Committee of Five, 82
report of the Committee of Seven, 47–48, 82, 271
American history, 8, 12, 63–79, 222, 278, 280, 301
aims and objectives in, 63–64
arrangement of materials in, 67
biography in the teaching of, 74
chronological arrangement in, 67
contemporary events related to, 72
at elementary school level, 66
emphasis on cultural phases in, 66
evaluation in, 75
geography in teaching of, 71
gradation of, 66
importance of geographic influences in, 72
importance of local history in, 72
interest in, 64
at junior college level, 66
at junior high school level, 66
list of topical units in, 69

American history, objective tests in, 76
organizing units in, 68
place in curriculum, 63
at senior high school level, 66
textbook and other materials in, 73
topical arrangement in, 67
use of historical fiction in, 75
American History and Its Geographic Conditions, E. C. Semple and C. F. Jones, 246
American Observer, The, 91, 127, 228
American Political Science Review, 149
American Revolution, 69, 74, 221
Americanization of Edward Bok, Edward Bok, 210
Analysis of pupil difficulties, 33–38
Anderson, Eugene, 90
Anna Karenina, L. Tolstoi, 131
Anthropology, 309
Areas of human activity, content of courses in, 302–303, 305, 306–307, 311–312
defined, 301, 302, 311
selection of the areas of, 301, 303, 304, 307, 312
Areas of human experience, 6
Aristotle, *The Politics*, 193
Arkansas plan, 303–304, 311
Armada, Spanish, 68
Asia, 92, 130
Asia, 245
Assemblies, school, 5, 143
Assignments, and pupil difficulties, 36
Atlantic, The, 229
Atlantic Ocean, 65, 108
Atlas of American Agriculture, 210
Atlas of Current Affairs, J. F. Horrabin, 91, 127
Attitudes of pupils, 7, 9, 20, 22, 39, 138, 139, 149, 152, 177
Attitudes tests, developed by Evaluation Staff of the Progressive Education Association, 102, 114, 211

B

Bacon, Francis, 65, 103
Balkans, 83, 84, 239
Ball, C. C., 264
Baltimore Sun, The, 229
Banking, unit on, 48–49
Banks, 48–49
Bartram, John, 65
Beacon Lights of Science, Theodore F. van Wagenen, 255
Beard, C. A., *The Rise of American Civilization*, 73
Belgium, 92
Bell, Howard M., *Youth Tell Their Story*, 275
"Bibliographies for Teachers of the Social Studies," E. B. Wesley, 148–149, 245
Bibliography of Geographical Literature for Elementary Grades and Junior High School, A, E. B. Knight, 245
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Bibliography of Recent Literature on the Teaching of Geography, A, F. K. Branom, 244
Big business, rise of, 174
Biography by Americans, 1658-1936, E. H. O'Neill, 75
Biography, use of, in American history, 74
Biology, 5, 187, 309
and sociology, 200, 212
Black Legion, Progressive Education Association, Commission on Human Relations, 195
Bok, Edward, *Americanization of Edward Bok*, 210
Boulder Dam, 230
Bowden, W., M. Karpovich, and A. P. Usher, *An Economic History of Europe since* 1750, 91
Bowman, Isaiah, *The New World*, 125, 128, 245–246

Boyd, James, *Marching On*, 75
Branom, F. K., "A Bibliography of Geography Books for Teachers and Pupils," 245
A Bibliography of Recent Literature on the Teaching of Geography, 244
Brigham, Albert Perry, *The United States of America*, 71
British Commonwealth of Nations, 93, 239
"Broad-fields" type of integrated curriculum, 283
Bronxville, N. Y., 281
Brooks, R. C., *Deliver Us From Dictators*, 106
Brown, J. F., and J. S. Roucek, *Our Racial and National Minorities*, 210
Bruun, Geoffrey, 90
Bryan, William J., 72
Budgets, household, 181
Buell, Raymond Leslie, *International Relations*, 91
Bulletin board, 143
Bulletin of Free and Inexpensive Aids for High School Subjects, A, 149
Bury, J. L., *History of Greece*, 210
Business education, 175
Business Week, 210
Butler, John, 75
Butler, Walter, 75

C

Can Europe Keep the Peace?, F. J. Simonds, 128
Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, 10
Caribbean Sea, 108
Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, *International Conciliation Pamphlets*, 91
Case method in teaching economics, 181–182
Case study and sociology, 202
Center of interest. 6, 301, 303, 304
Center-of-interest unit, 54–55, 59
Central High School, Chattanooga, Tenn., 207
Chamberlain, W. H., *Russia's Iron Age*, 91, 106
Change, curriculum revision in times of, 270, 271, 272, 273, 286, 288
education in a world of, 270, 286
Character Bad, Harold Gray, 107
Character habits, 177
Characteristics of the slow learner, 22, 24
Chase, Stuart, *The Tragedy of Waste*, 106, 180
Chemistry, 186, 187
Chicago, University of, 274
Child-centered school, 11
Child study, 5
Children, care of, 292
Christian Science Monitor, The, 132, 229
Church, 1
Cicero, 103, 109
Citizenship, 57, 218
in a democracy, 19, 155, 156, 163, 170, 270–271
exercising, 144
problems of, in American democracy, 192–193, 197, 201
traits of goods, 7–8, 139–140
Citizenship through Education, Clyde B. Moore, 143
Civic arts, 143
Civic beauty, 143
Civic education, achievements of the public school in, 137
in entire school, 137, 150
need for, 137
Civic Education in the United States, C. E. Merriam, 148
Civic Leader, 127
Civic training through school organizations, 148
Civics, 11, 137–144, 150–151, 278, 280, 303
activities in, 143–144, 151
aims in, 139–140
effective procedures and activities in, 143

Civics, evaluation in, 149–150
evolution of courses in, 138
factual aspects of, 140
functional, 140, 150
as an introductory course, 140–141
material for study of, 148–149
modern, 139
need for, 137
personal approach to, 141–142, 150–151
Civil government (*see* Civics)
Civil service, 160
Civil War, 69, 48, 174
Classification, of needs, 276–277, 287
of social studies content, 309
of topics in problems of democracy, 161–162, 165, 166, 171
Classroom activities and educational experiences, 155, 158, 163, 164, 165–167, 272, 287, 296
Classroom equipment for problems of democracy, 159, 171
Clean-up week, 143
Coin's Financial School, W. H. Harvey, 72
Cole, G. D. H., and M. I. P. Cole, *Intelligent Man's Review of Europe Today*, 128
College Entrance Examination Board, Recommendations of the Commission on History, 83, 309
Commager, H. S., *Documents of American History*, 73
Commager, H. S., and Allan Nevins, *The Heritage of America*, 73
Commercial geography, 235, 242–243
Commercial subjects, 175, 182
Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education (*see* National Education Association)
Commission on the Social Studies (*see* American Historical Association)
Committee of Fifteen (*see* National Education Association)
Committee of Five (*see* American Historical Association)
Committee method, in teaching current events, 225
Committee of Seven (*see* American Historical Association)
Committee on Social-economic Goals (*see* National Education Association)
Committee on the Social Studies, Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction, 305
Committee of Ten (*see* National Education Association)
Committee on Traffic in Opium and Other Drugs, The, 98
Committees on democratic procedures, 4–5
"Common-objectives" type of integrated curriculum, 284–285
Communication, 57, 160, 292, 302, 311
Communism, 85, 91, 132, 145
Community, relation of, to school, 13
and the social-studies curriculum, 10
use of resources of, 281
Community health, 143
Comprehensiveness and balance, in social studies curriculum, 8, 15
Comte, Auguste, 193
Condorcet, 193
Constantinople, capture of, 68
Constitution of the United States, 69, 138, 145
Consumer economics, 182–188, 189
a new approach to, 186–187
rise of, 182–183
types of courses in, 183–186
Consumers, 292
and their needs, 160
Consumption, 57
Contemporary affairs, increasing emphasis on, 83, 91
Contemporary Review, 229
Content, of areas of human activity courses, 302–303, 305, 306–307, 311

Content, of core curriculums, 296, 297, 298, 299, 300, 301, 310–311
of curriculums, 290, 292, 295, 297, 301, 310, 311, 312
selection of course, 271, 272, 273, 278, 287
Continuity of education, 280–281
Cooperation, 177
in the development of the curriculum, 13
in planning, 292, 296, 311
Cooperatives, 91
Core curriculum, 290–301, 310–311
conference, hours of, 295–296, 311
content of, 296, 297, 298, 299, 300, 301, 310–311
defined, 290–291, 310
examples of, 297–301
guidance in, 296, 298, 301, 311
objectives of, 291, 295, 296, 298, 299, 300, 310
selection of problems, 292–293, 311
teachers of, 291–292, 311
as a type of integrated curriculum, 285–286
values of, 291
Correlated thinking in the schools, 252
Correlated unit, 53, 59
Correlation, 250–261, 310
of courses, 252–253, 280, 281, 282, 287
of English, sociology, mathematics, science, and art, 258
of English and community civics, 253
of English and social studies, 257
examples of, 253–260
and fusion, 250–267
of history and geography, 253
of music and social studies, 257
of science and social studies, 253–257
tandem plan of, 253
Course objectives, evaluation of, 39–40, 42
philosophy of, 40
Courses, correlation of, 280, 281, 282, 287
elective, 291, 295, 297, 311
fusion of, 281, 287, 310
integrated, 290, 291, 310
organization of, 290, 291, 292, 310
in problems of democracy, 155–156
selection of content of, 271, 272, 273, 278, 286, 287
Creed, class, 139–140
Crusades, 111
Cry Havoc, Beverley Nichols, 106
Cultural diffusion, 198
Cultural lag, 198
Cultural pattern, 198
Culture and sociology, 198, 200–201
"Culture-epoch" type of integrated curriculum, 283, 296
Current events, 216–232
aims and objectives, 218, 231
appeal to interest of pupil, 219
checking the work, 229
clubs, 226–227
committee method, 225
contemporary history, 222
devices and aids in teaching, 227
difficulties in the study of, 217–218, 231
discussion of, in problems of democracy, 165
as an extracurricular activity, 226–227
fitting into the school program, 220, 231
and history, 221–222, 223, 231
importance of studying present-day problems, 220, 232
importance of teacher, 230–231
importance of teaching discrimination in reading in, 219–220
individual assignment, 224–225
magazines, 228–229, 231
methods of teaching, 224
need for teaching, 219, 231
papers, 228–229
place of, in curriculum, 218

Current events, problem of indoctrination, 229–230
problems in the teaching of, 216–217
recitation method in, 225–226
selection of topics, 229
as a separate study, 223
studying upon a background of history, 222
as supplementary to teaching the social studies, 220–221
teaching history backward, 230
value of, 217
when to teach, 223–224
Current Events, 228
Current History and Forum, 125, 130, 229
Curriculum, business education, 175
commercial subjects, 175
core, 290–301, 310–311
defined, 5
to meet changing conditions, 270, 271, 272, 273, 286, 287
modification of, 22, 24, 25, 29, 42
new plans, 6–7, 15
pupil needs and, 274, 281, 283, 287
pupil planning of, 274, 287
revision of, 290, 301, 310
school, 5–14
social studies in the, 7–8, 15
social studies, principles underlying, 8–11, 15
type or pattern of organization, 11–12, 15
teacher planning of, 274, 287, 288
trends in, 13, 15
(*See also* specific subject)
Curriculum-making in the Social Studies, L. C. Marshall and R. M. Goetz, 308
Curriculum Staff, Progressive Education Association, 283, 296
Curriculum Steering Committee, Tulsa Public Schools, 299
Curriculums, content of, 290, 292, 295, 297, 301, 310, 311, 312
integrated, 280, 281, 281–286, 287

D

Dale, Edgar, 195
Dalton plan, individual differences and the, 29, 30, 42
Dampier, Sir William, *A History of Science*, 254, 255, 256
Darwin, Charles, 65
Dean, Vera M., *Europe in Retreat*, 91
Debates, in problems of democracy, 164
Deliver Us from Dictators, R. C. Brooks, 106
Democracy, aims of education in a, 6–7, 15
citizenship in a, 19, 155, 156, 165, 170, 270–271
in the classroom, 4–5
development of, 85
education and, 19
meaning of, 4
plans for developing, 3–4, 14–15
problems confronting citizens of, 192–193, 197, 201
the school and, 3, 14–15
in the school, 4–5, 14–15
training in, 3, 14–15
Democratic aims, 3–4, 139, 176
Democratic way of life, 3–4, 139–140
Denmark, 92
Dennett, Tyler, *John Hay*, 74
Denver, Colo., East High School, 281, 298, 311
Manual Training High School, 298–299, 311
Department of Agriculture, 181, 245
Department of Commerce, 245
Department of Superintendence (*see* National Education Association)
Depression, 158, 160
Descartes, René, 65
Dewey, John, 54–55, 235, 246, 251
Diagnostic procedures of pupil difficulties, 33, 34, 35, 37
Dick, E. B., *The Sodhouse Frontier*, 73
Diederich, Paul, 296

Disarmament, 219
Disciplinary school, 5–6
Discussion, educational experiences in, 155, 163, 164, 165, 166
Documents of American History, H. S. Commager, 73
Drums along the Mohawk, Walter D. Edmonds, 75
Durant, W. J., *The Life of Greece*, 210
Duranty, Walter, *I Write as I Please*, 91, 130

E

East High School, Denver, Colo., 298
Economics, 11, 174–189, 278, 280, 309
  aids to teaching, 187
  aims of, 176–177, 188
  case method, 181–182
  changes in content of, 174–175
  classical approach, 178, 189
  conditioning influences in organizing courses in, 177–178
  consumer, 182–188
  in the curriculum today, 175
  early teaching of, 174, 188
  evaluating the outcomes in, 188
  excursions in teaching, 187, 189
  laboratory plans in, 182
  as an organized school subject, 174
  principles for organizing a course in, 177–178
  problems approach, 179–180, 188
  project approach, 180–181
  purpose of, in curriculum, 176–177, 188
  recent trends in teaching, 176
  socialized procedures in, 182
  supervised study in, 181
  theory in, 178–179
  traditional approach, 178–179, 189
  use of free pamphlets and booklets, 187–188, 189
  visual aids in teaching, 187, 189
Economic geography, 175, 235, 242–243
Economic History of Europe since 1750, W. Bowden, M. Karpovich, and A. P. Usher, 91
Economic problems, 277
Economic relationships, needs of, 277
Edmonds, Walter D., *Drums along the Mohawk*, 75
Education, in a changing world, 1–2, 270, 286
  city systems of, 270, 281
  continuity of, 280–281
  and democracy, 19
  evaluation of, 290, 305, 308, 309
  experiences in, 19, 20, 21, 24, 26, 27, 32, 39, 273, 276, 278, 291, 292, 295, 307, 310, 311
  experiments in, 270, 280–281, 286, 287, 292, 295, 310, 312
  methods of, 290, 306
  objectives of, 196, 270, 271, 273, 276, 277, 287
  outcomes of, 273, 279, 281, 287
  philosophies of, 273, 286
  procedures of, 270, 272, 276
  and psychology, 272, 273–274, 287
  realism in, 13
  state systems of, 270
  techniques of, 270, 276, 287
Education Film Catalog, 149, 244
Education and the Modern World, Bertrand Russell, 148
Educational Policies Commission (*see* National Education Association)
Education for Political Citizenship, David Snedden, 148
Education of a Princess, The, former Grand Duchess Marie, 130
Educational experiences, 46–47
  classroom activities and, 155, 158, 163, 164, 165–167
  discussion and, 155, 163, 164, 165, 166
Educational Index, 148
Educational objectives, and individual differences, 23, 41

Educational philosophy, individual differences and, 20–21, 32
Educational process, 26
Egypt, 283
Eight-year Experimental Study, Progressive Education Association, 280–281, 282, 299
Elective courses, 291, 295, 297, 311
Ely, R. T., 174
Emotion, a cause of pupil difficulties, 35, 37
Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence, Carolyn B. Zachry, 275
Emotion and the Educative Process, Daniel O. Prescott, 275
Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences, 91
Encyclopedic organization of materials of instruction, 47
English, courses in, 219–220
English history, 63
Enrollment in secondary schools, 271
Environment, and individual differences, 23, 42
Erasmus, 103
Ethics, 309
Europe, 239
Europe in Retreat, Vera M. Dean, 91
European history, 82–97
  aims in, 83
  geography and, 91, 92
  influence of committees on, 82
  interest in, 92
  list of units in, 85–86
  mastery of vocabulary in, 84
  objectives in, 83
  plans of organization in, 84
  problem of gradation in, 93
  problems of organizing material in, 83
  reevaluation of material in, 90
  social process approach to organizing materials in, 86
  stimulating interest in, 92
  textbook and other materials in, 90
European system of education, 6
Evaluation, in American history, 75–77
  in civics, 149–150
  course objectives and, 39–40, 42
  in economics, 188
  of education, 290, 305, 308, 309
  in European history, 94
  in government, 149–150
  importance of, 75
  inadequacies of most programs of, 38–39, 42
  learning and continuous, 38, 41
  philosophy of, 24–25, 40–41
  in problems of democracy, 168, 171
  of pupil growth, 22, 24, 32, 38
  in sociology, 210–211, 213
  techniques of, 24, 39, 42, 168, 211, 213, 270, 272, 280, 287
  in world history, 114
Evaluation Staff, Progressive Education Association, 211
Examples of core curriculums, 297–301
Experience unit, 56, 60
Experiences, educational, 19, 20, 21, 24, 26, 27, 32, 39, 273, 274, 276, 278, 287, 291, 292, 295, 307, 310, 311, 312
  learning and the continuity of, 25–26, 42
  learning and interaction of 25–26, 42
Experiential background, of pupils, 21, 22, 24, 29, 32, 35, 40, 273, 278, 287, 297
Experiments, educational, 270, 280–281, 286, 287, 292, 295, 310, 312
Extra-curricular activities, 281, 297

F

Family, 1
Family relationships, 292
Far East, 225, 226, 239
Fascism, 85, 91, 127, 129, 132, 145
Fascists, 199
Faÿ, Bernard, *George Washington*, 74

Fay, S. B., *The Origins of the World War*, 91
Faulkner, H. U., *American Economic History*, 73
Field trips, 22, 26, 160, 166, 167, 171, 195, 205, 206
Finer, Herman, *Mussolini's Italy*, 127
First Bank of the United States, 48–49
First Lessons in Political Economy, F. A. Walker, 174
First Principles of Physics, R. W. Fuller, R. B. Brownlee, and L. D. Baker, 256
First World War, 84, 119, 175, 194, 235, 245, 246, 262
Flexibility in social-studies curriculum, 10, 15
Folkways, 198, 200
Fontamara, Ignazio Silone, 131
Fordney-McCumber Tariff, 181
Foreign Affairs, 125, 229
Foreign Policy Association, 125, 128
Foreign Policy Association, *Headline Books*, 91, 128, 201
Formal education, 46
Forum, 1
Frame of reference, 5
France, 85
Franklin, Benjamin, 65
Frederick, O. I., 302
French Revolution, outline of unit on, 87–90
Friends Service Committee, 261
Fuller, R. W., R. B. Brownlee, L. D. Baker, *First Principles of Physics*, 256
Fury, Progressive Education Association, Commission on Human Relations, 195
Fused unit, 53–54, 59
Fusion, 261–267
  aims of, 263–264
  courses, 281, 287, 310
  development of, 266
  evaluation of, 265–266
  geography and, 241
Fusion, meaning of, in social studies, 261
  movement toward, 261
  reasons for rise of the movement, 263–265
  varying ideas of, 262

G

Galton, Sir Francis, *Hereditary Genius*, 23
General education, objectives of, 196, 290, 293, 306
  social studies in, 7–8, 290
Geographic News Bulletin, 245
Geographical Review, 245
Geography, 11, 234–246, 278, 280, 309
  aids to teaching, 244–245, 247
  aims in, 236–238, 246
  best courses in high schools, 243–244
  commercial, 235, 242–243
  economic, 235, 242–243
  in eighteenth-century schools, 234, 246
  evolution in the secondary school, 234–235
  and fusion courses, 241
  importance of, in junior high schools, 236
  influence of First World War on, 235, 246
  influence of John Dewey on, 235, 246
  influence of Pestalozzi on, 234, 246
  in junior high schools, 235–236, 246
  local, 241
  materials for the study of, 244–246
  in nineteenth-century schools, 235, 246
  observational, 241
  plans of organization, 238–241
  political, 242, 244
  purposes of teaching, 236–238, 246
  regional plan in teaching, 239
  in senior high school, 242–244, 247

Geography, skills in, 238
social, 235
and sociology, 200, 212
tandem plan, 241
thinking in terms of, 238
topical plan in teaching, 239
type plan in teaching, 239–240
United States, 235
use of, in American history, 71
use of, in European history, 91–92
use of, in world history, 107–108, 235
Geography Made Easy, Jedidiah Morse, 234
Germany, 83, 84
Gestalt psychology, 49–50
Glover, Katherine, *America Begins Again*, 106, 180
Gluck, Harold, "Living with Geography," 245
Goals of pupils, 19, 22, 37, 40
(*See also* Aims; Objectives)
Goddard, H. H., *Kallikak Family*, 23
Government, 144–152, 160
courses in, 144, 146, 151–152
difficulties in teaching realistically, 145
evaluation in courses in, 149–150
functions of, 141
material for study of, 148–149
realism in studying, 144
school, 5
sociology and the study of, 198, 200
student, 142, 146–147, 151
Grade classification, individual differences and, 27, 28, 42
Grade levels, 8, 9
Gray, Harold, *Character Bad*, 107
Great Men of Science, Grove Wilson, 255
Great Offensive, The, Maurice Hindus, 91, 106, 130
Great Powers in World Politics, The, F. H. Simonds and Brooks Emeny, 128
Greece, 107, 283
Greek culture, unit on, 110
Grotius, Hugo, 98
Grover Cleveland, Allan Nevins, 74
Growth of pupils, 271, 273, 278
Guidance, 19–43
in the core curriculum, 296, 298, 301, 311
need for, 19–20, 42
outlines for study, 67
Guide to the Best Historical Novels and Tales, A, Jonathan Nield, 75
Gunther, John, *Inside Europe*, 91
Guyot, 234, 240, 246

H

Habits, 139, 152
Hamilton, Alexander, 48
Hammond, C. S., and Company, *New Reference Atlas of the World*, 91
Hammond, J. L., and Barbara Hammond, *The Town Laborer*, 210
Hanna, Paul R., and others, *Youth Serves the Community*, 143
Harbor, The, Ernest Poole, 106
Harper's Magazine, 130, 210, 229
Harrabin, J. F., *Atlas of Current Affairs*, 91, 127
Hart, Liddell, *Through the Fog of War*, 91
Hartley, W. H., *Selected Films for American History and Problems*, 149
Harvey, W. H., *Coin's Financial School*, 72
Hawley-Smoot Tariff, 181
Hay, John, Tyler Dennett, 74
Hayes, C. H. J., *Political and Cultural History of Europe*, 91
Headline Books (*see* Foreign Policy Association)
Hedger, W. A., *An Introduction to Western Civilization*, 210
Hendrick, B. J., *The Lees of Virginia*, 74
Herbart Society for the Scientific Study of Teaching, *First Yearbook*, 250

Hereditary Genius, Sir Francis Galton, 23
Heredity, individual differences and, 23, 42
Heritage of America, The, H. S. Commager and Allan Nevins, 73
Hindenburg, Emil Ludwig, 130
Hindus, Maurice, *The Great Offensive*, 91, 106, 130
Historic Highways, Archer Butler Hulbert, 71
Historical fiction, 75
Historical Fiction and Other Reading References for Classes in Junior and Senior High Schools, Hannah Logasa, 75
Historical Outlook, 148–149, 245
History, 11, 278, 280
  American, 8, 12, 63–79, 222, 278, 280, 301
  ancient, 309
  contemporary, 222
  criticisms of the teaching of, 155
  and current events, 221–223
  English, 63
  European, 95, 309
  medieval, 309
  and sociology, 193, 202, 213
  study of, 20
  teaching backwards, 230
  unit in, 51
  United States, 303
  world, 98–115, 303
History of Greece, J. L. Bury, 210
History of Modern Culture, A, Preserved Smith, 255
History of Science, A, Sir William Dampier, 254, 255, 256
History of the United States, A. E. Martin, 73
History of World Civilization, A, J. E. Swain, 108
Hitler, Adolf, *Mein Kampf*, 91, 106
Hockett, H. C., *Political and Social Growth of the American People*, 73
Home, 292
Home economics, 175, 182, 187
Homogeneous grouping, bases of, 29
  and individual differences, 29, 30, 42
Hoover, Herbert, 230
Horizontal articulation, in social-studies curriculum, 8, 15
Hours for core conference, 295–296, 311
Housing, 292
Hulbert, Archer Butler, *Historic Highways*, 71
Human activity, areas of, defined, 301–302, 311
Human Adventure, The, J. H. Robinson, 108
Human Habitat, The, Ellsworth Huntington, 245
Huntington, Ellsworth. *The Human Habitat*, 245

I

Ideals, 7, 57, 138, 139, 144, 149, 152
Immediate personal-social relationships, needs of, 277
Imperialism, 85, 60, 293
Indian pueblos, 221
Individual assignment in current events, 224–225
Individual differences, 23–32
  and course content, 22, 24, 32
  Dalton plan, and, 29, 30, 42
  educational objectives and, 23, 41
  educational philosophy and, 32
  environment and, 23, 42
  grade classification and, 27, 28, 42
  heredity and, 23, 42
  homogeneous grouping and, 29, 30, 42
  implications for the teacher, 23, 27, 41, 42
  instructional plans and, 28, 29
  instructional procedures, 21, 22, 24
  and mental health, 24, 25
  Morrison plan and, 29, 31, 42
  physiological changes, 27, 42
  plans for meeting, 28–32

Individual differences, project method and, 29, 31–32
in reading ability, 22, 24, 36, 159, 194
and teacher planning, 21, 22
unit-assignment plan and, 29
war and, 26
Winnetka plan and, 29, 30, 42
Wisconsin plan and, 29, 31
Industrial improvement, 143
Industrial Revolution, the, 87, 111
Industry, health hazards in, 292
Influences of Geographic Environment on the Basis of Ratzel's System of Anthropogeography, E. C. Semple, 246
Information, sources of, 157, 197
Inside Europe, John Gunther, 91
Instruction, and individual differences, 21, 22, 24
pupil difficulties with, 37, 42
Instructional plans and individual differences, 28, 29
Institutions, basic, and sociology, 198, 212
Integrated curriculums, 280, 281–286, 287, 290, 291, 310
"broad-fields" type, 283
"common-objectives" type, 284–285
core curriculum, 285–286
"culture-epoch" type, 283
explanation of, 282
"integration-of-particular-subjects" type, 284
"major-interest" type, 284
types of, 282–285
Integrated unit, 53–54
"Integration-of-particular-subjects" type of integrated curriculum, 284
Intellectual factors, and pupil difficulties, 34, 42
Intelligent Man's Review of Europe Today, G. D. H. Cole and M. I. P. Cole, 128
Interests of pupils, 19, 21, 22, 24, 28, 29, 37, 39, 40, 42, 64, 273, 281, 287, 291, 293, 297, 298
International Conciliation Pamphlets (*see* Carnegie Endowment for International Peace)
International Organization for Intellectual Cooperation, The, 98
International Postal Union, The, 98
International Red Cross, The, 98
International relations, 118–136
aims in, 120–121
books for individual reading in, 130
cooperation with other fields of study, 130–131
course in international relations, 118
current events in, 119, 123–124
definite assignments in, 129–130
list of units in, 122–123
materials for use in, 124, 127
methods for using materials in, 126, 128
necessity for circumscription of course in, 118
objectives in, 120–121
organization of course in, 122–123
other teaching aids in, 129
preparation for teaching a course in, 125
reading as a part of course in, 130
relations of, to history, 120
scope of a course in, 118
selection of material in, 118–119
teaching the use of the library in, 129
techniques for selecting materials in, 125
textbooks in, 126
topics suitable for, 119
use of newspapers in, 131
International Relations, Raymond Leslie Buell, 91
Interracial understanding, 207
Introduction to Western Cviilization, W. A. Hedger, 210
Iowa, 72

Italy, 83, 85, 129
It Can't Happen Here, Sinclair Lewis, 106
I Write as I Please, Walter Duranty, 91

J

Jacksonian democracy, 174
Jay treaty, 67
Jeremiah, 109
Joint Committee on Curriculum of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, 57
Jones, C. F., 246
Journal of Educational Sociology, 210
Journal of Geography, 245
Judd, C. H., 6, 264
Judgment, 219
Junior Red Cross, 143
Junior Review, The, 228
Junior Scholastic, 228

K

Kallikak Family, H. H. Goddard, 23
Kant, Immanuel, 98
Kelley, T. L., and A. C. Krey, *Tests and Measurements in the Social Sciences*, 150
Knight, E. B., *A Bibliography of Geographical Literature for Elementary Grades and Junior High School*, 245

L

Labor movement, 158
Labor problems, 293
Laboratory instruction, 46
Langer, William L. (Ed.) "The Rise of Modern Europe" series, 91
Langsam, W. C., *The World since 1914*, 125, 128
Latin America, 239
Laughlin, J. L., *Elements of Political Economy*, 174
Law, 6
Laws, The, Plato, 193
League of Nations, 72, 98, 125, 142
Learning, continuity of experience and laws of, 25–26, 42
  continuous evaluation of, 38, 41
  implication for the teacher, 20–21
  interaction of objective and subjective factors of experience and laws of, 25, 26, 42
  the modification of personality and, 20
  process, 20–22, 279
  psychology of, 20
  and pupil activity, 20
  selection of materials for, 21
Lees of Virginia, The, B. J. Hendrick, 74
Leisure, 57
Lewis, Sinclair, *It Can't Happen Here*, 106
Life of Greece, The, W. J. Durant, 210
Literature, 1, 6, 12
Living, 57
  in a democratic society, 300, 312
  needs of personal, 277, 293–294
Living Age, 229
Living Past, The, F. S. Marvin, 98
Local history, 143
  importance in teaching of American history, 72
Locke, John, 65
Logasa, Hannah, *Historical Fiction and Other Reading References for Classes in Junior and Senior High Schools*, 75
Louisiana Purchase, the, 67
Ludwig, Emil, *Hindenburg*, 130
Lynd, R. S., and H. M. Lynd, *Middletown*, 210, 275
  Middletown in Transition, 210, 275

M

McMurray, Charles, 250
Madison, James, 68
Mahan, Admiral, 108
"Major-interest" type of integrated curriculum, 284
Making of an American, The, Jacob Riis, 210

Making of Citizens, The, A Comparative Study of Methods of Civic Training, C. E. Merriam, 148
Manual Training High School, Denver, Colo., 298–299
Marching On, James Boyd, 75
Marie, former Grand Duchess of Russia, *Education of a Princess*, 130
Marshall, Alfred, 174
Marshall, L. C., and R. M. Goetz, *Curriculum-making in the Social Studies*, 308
Martin, A. E., *History of the United States*, 73
Martin, Everett Dean, 103
Marvin, F. S., *The Living Past*, 98
Marx, Karl, 65, 103
Mason, Thomas, Adventurer, Henry Pleasants, 75
Mass production, 293
Massachusetts, 174
Materials, arrangement in American history, 67
  for civics, 148–149
  in European history, 83–84
  formal organization of, 47
  for government, 148–149
  organization of, 46–62, 278–279, 286, 287
  for problems of democracy, 159, 162, 166, 170
  selection of, 21, 38, 42
  for sociology, 210–203, 210, 212
Mathematics, 186
Mayer, Joseph, *Seven Seals of Science*, 254, 255
Medicine, 6
Mein Kampf, Adolf Hitler, 91, 106
Mental health, individual differences and, 24, 25
Meriam, J. L., 264
Merriam, C. E., *Civic Education in the United States*, 148
  The Making of Citizens, a Comparative Study of Methods of Civic Training, 148
Methods, for determining pupil needs, 274–276
  educational, 290, 306, 310
Mexico, 240
Middletown, R. S. Lynd and H. M. Lynd, 210, 275
Middletown in Transition, 210, 275
Mill, John Stuart, 103, 174
  Principles of Political Economy, 174
Mind in the Making, The, J. H. Robinson, 114
Mississippi Program for the Improvement of Instruction, 302–303
Mississippi State Curriculum Study, 302
Modification of the curriculum, 22, 24, 25, 29, 42
Moley, Raymond, *The Practice of Politics*, 149
Montaigne, 103
Montesquieu, *Spirit of the Laws*, 193
Moore, Clyde B., *Citizenship through Education*, 143
Morehouse, Frances, 85
Mores, 198, 200
Morrison, H. C., 51
  mastery formula, 51–52, 58
  teaching cycle, 51, 58
  unitary plan, 29, 31, 42, 51–52, 58–59
Morse, Jedidiah, *Geography Made Easy*, 234
Motivation, 159, 165, 169, 160, 206, 213
Mussolini, 127, 129

N

Nation, The, 228
National Association of Student Officers, 147, 152
National Council of Geography Teachers, 245
National Council for the Prevention of War, 125

National Council for the Social Studies, *Pamphlets on Public Affairs for Use in Social Studies Classes*, 149
Utilization of Community Resources in the Social Studies, 149
National defense, 219
National Education Association, Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education, Committee on Social Studies, 82, 156
Committee of Fifteen, 250
Committee on Social-economic Goals, 10–11
Committee of Ten, 47, 250
Department of Superintendence, 8, 15, 150
Educational Policies Commission, 3
National elections, 158
National Geographic Magazine, 210, 245
National Geographic Society, 245
Nationalism, 83, 85, 160
Native's Return, Louis Adamic, 130
Natural resources, 160
Naziism, 132, 145
Nazis, 199
Near East, 239
Needs, classification of, 276–277
community and sociology, 197, 201
for a course in sociology, 192, 203
of economic relationships, 277, 294–295
of immediate personal-social relationships, 277, 294
methods for determining, 274–276, 287
of personal living, 277, 293–294
problems of democracy and community, 155
of pupils, 19, 21, 22, 24, 27, 29, 30, 32, 33, 37, 40, 271, 273, 274, 275–276, 277, 280, 281, 283, 287, 290, 291, 293, 295, 297, 298, 311
Needs, social, 295, 312
of social-civic relationships, 277, 294
Nevins, Allan, *Grover Cleveland*, 74
New Deal, 221, 226
New Reference Atlas of the World, 91
New Republic, The, 228
New Viewpoints in American History, A. M. Schlesinger, 71
New World, The, Isaiah Bowman, 125, 128, 245–246
New York's Regents' Inquiry, 148
New York Times, The, 132, 229
Newspaper reading, 220, 226
Newspapers, 218, 226
Newsweek, 126, 228
Newton, Sir Isaac, 65
Nichols, Beverley, *Cry Havoc*, 106
Nield, Jonathan, *A Guide to the Best Historical Novels and Tales*, 75
North America, 92, 108
North America, J. R. Smith and M. O. Phillips, 245

O

Oakland, Calif., University High School, 282, 301, 311
Objectives, of American education, 156
in American history, 63
of core curriculums, 291, 295, 296, 298, 299, 300, 311
current events, 218
educational, 270, 271, 273, 276, 277, 287
in European history, 83–84
of general education, 196
in international relations, 120–121
in problems of American democracy, 156–157, 158, 159, 162, 170
of social studies, 7–8, 10, 11, 15, 277, 287
in social-studies curriculum, 10–11, 15
in sociology, 193, 196–197, 201, 212
in world history, 102–103

Ohio State University, 195
O'Neill, E. H., *Biography by Americans*, 1658-1936, 75
  A History of American Biography, 75
Organization, of courses, 290, 291, 292, 310
  of courses in sociology, 197–201, 212
  of materials 278–279, 287
  plans for, and sociology, 203–204, 212
  of problems of democracy courses, 157–167, 170
  of social studies, 272, 287
Organized group life, 57
Oriental culture, study of, 110
Origins of the World War, The, S. B. Fay, 91
Our Racial and National Minorities, J. F. Brown and J. S. Roucek, 210
Our Times, 228
Outcomes, educational, 156, 159, 160, 168, 169, 171, 194, 201, 206, 212, 273, 279, 281, 287
Outline of History, H. G. Wells, 108
Ownership, absentee, 293

P

Panama Canal, 230
Pan-American Union, 98
Parker, Francis W., 250
Parker High School, Chicago, 147
Parsons, Geoffrey, *The Stream of History*, 108
Pattern of curriculum organization, 11–12, 15
Patterns of behavior, development of, 142
Penn, William, 98
Pennsylvania plan, 57, 305–307, 311
Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction, Committee on the Social Studies, 305
Personality, learning and the modification of, 20
Pestalozzi, 234, 246
Philadelphia, 65
Philosophy, 309
  of course objectives, 40
  of education, 5, 273, 286
  of evaluation programs, 24–25, 40–41
  of social studies, 308
Phillips, M. O., 245
Physical causes of pupil difficulties, 33, 42
Physics, 187
Physiological changes, individual differences in, 27
Physiology, 309
Pinckney treaty, 68
Pittsburgh, Pa., 146
Plan, Arkansas, 303–304, 311
  Pennsylvania, 305–307, 311
  scope-and-sequence, 295
  University of Wisconsin High School, 307–308
  Virginia, 304–305, 311
Planning, cooperative, 292, 296, 311
  by pupils, 292, 311
  by teachers, 301, 310, 311
Plans, for meeting individual differences, 28–32
  of organization, geography, 238–241
Plato, 103
  The Laws, 193
Pleasants, Henry, *Thomas Mason, Adventurer*, 75
Political and Cultural History of Europe, C. J. H. Hayes, 91
Political economy (*see* Economics)
Political idealism, 144–145
Political parties, 141
Political problems, 277
Political realism, 144–145
Political science, 144–150, 309
  (*See also* Government)
Political and Social Growth of the American People, H. C. Hockett, 73
Politics, The, Aristotle, 193
Poole, Ernest, *The Harbor*, 106
Populist Party, 66, 72

Possible Procedures for Obtaining a Tentative List of Pupil Needs, Progressive Education Association Summer Workshop, 274
Practice of Politics, The, Raymond Moley, 149
Prescott, Daniel O., *Emotion and the Educative Process*, 275
President's Research Committee, *Recent Social Trends in the United States*, 210
Priesthood, 6
Principles, economic, 180
Principles of Political Economy, John Stuart Mill, 174
Pringle, H. F., *Theodore Roosevelt*, 74
Problem method, 179–180
Problems of American democracy, 155–173
- aims, 156–157
- classification of topics for, 161–162, 165, 166, 171
- classroom equipment for, 159, 171
- and community needs, 155
- debates in, 164, 166
- difficulties in evaluating outcomes of, 168, 171
- discussion of current events in, 165
- evaluation of, 168, 171
- experiential background of pupils for, 158, 170
- field trips and, 160, 166, 167, 171
- materials for, 159, 162, 166, 170, 171
- motivation, for, 159, 165, 169, 170
- need for a course in, 155, 170
- objectives for, 156–157, 158, 159, 162, 170
- outcomes of, 156, 159, 160, 163, 168, 169, 170
- panel discussions in, 164
- pupil abilities and, 158, 159, 160
- pupil committees in, 166, 167
- pupil growth, 159, 168, 171
- pupil interests and, 158, 159, 165, 168–169, 170
- pupil needs and, 160, 169, 170

Problems of American democracy, pupil planning and, 163, 164, 165–167
- pupil vocabulary and, 159
- suggestions for organizing, 157–167, 170–171
- teacher planning, 159, 161, 163, 164, 165–167, 169, 170
- teacher preparation for, 167–168, 169–170, 171
- teacher role in, 167, 169–170
- techniques of evaluation, 168, 171
- textbooks for, 159–160, 171
- thinking in, 157, 162, 169

Problems, contemporary, 222
- economic, 179–180, 277
- of the modern world, 1–2
- political, 277
- present day, importance of studying, 220
  - and sociology, 197, 201, 202, 203, 213
- social, 277
- solution of, 291
- trend to stress modern, 13–14, 15

Problem-solving abilities, 9
- techniques of, 13–14

Pressure groups, 293
Procedures, educational, 270, 272, 276, 287
Production, 75
Progressive Education Association, Commission on Human Relations, *Black Legion*, 195
  - *Fury*, 195
- Commission on Secondary School Curriculum, *Reorganizing Secondary Education*, 164
- Curriculum Staff, 283, 296
- Eight-year Experimental Study, 280–281, 282, 299
- Evaluation Staff of, 211
- Science Committee's report, *Science in General Education*, 275, 277, 293
- Summer Workshop, *Possible Procedures for Obtaining a Tentative List of Pupil Needs*, 274

Progressive Education Association, workshops, 274
Project method, in economics, 180–181
in geography, 240, 241
individual differences and, 29, 31–32
Propaganda, 293
and sociology, 199, 212
Psychology, 5, 138, 150, 309
adolescent, 290
and education, 272, 273–274, 287
Gestalt, 49–50
of learning, 20
social, 6
Public Affairs Pamphlets, 210
use of, for study of contemporary problems, 74
Public health, 292, 311
Public opinion, 160, 198, 219
Pupil, abilities of, 281, 287, 292, 297
and problems of democracy, 158, 159, 170
ambitions of, 273
attitudes of, 20, 22, 39
average, 10
bright, 10
capacities and abilities of, 21, 22, 24, 25, 29, 32, 40
committees in problems of democracy, 166, 167
dull, 10
experiential background of, 21, 22, 24, 29, 32, 35, 40, 273, 278, 287, 297
for problems of democracy, 158, 170
experiential background and the study of sociology, 194, 212
goals of, 19, 22, 37, 40
growth of, 271, 273, 278
and problems of democracy, 159, 168, 171
interests of, 19, 21, 22, 28, 29, 37, 39, 40, 42, 273, 281, 287, 291, 293, 297, 298
and problems of democracy, 158, 159, 165, 168–169, 170
Pupil, interests of, and the study of sociology, 194, 197, 201, 212
needs of, 19, 21, 22, 24, 27, 29, 30, 32, 33, 37, 40, 271, 273, 274, 275, 276, 277, 280, 281, 283, 287, 290, 291, 293, 295, 297, 298
a basis for selection of material, 94
and the curriculum, 274, 281, 283, 287
participation of, 274
planning, of the curriculum, 274, 287, 292, 311
in problems of democracy, 160, 169, 170
social sensitivity of, 19, 39
Pupil activity and the learning process, 20
Pupil difficulties, analysis of, 33–38
assignments and, 36
diagnostic procedures of, 33, 34, 35, 37
emotional causes of, 35, 37
instruction and, 37
intellectual factors and, 34, 42
physical causes of, 33, 42
social causes of, 35, 37, 42
study skills, 34–35, 42
teachers' obligation, 37–38
work habits, 34–35, 39, 42
Pupil growth, evaluation of, 22, 24, 32, 38
Pythagoras, 193

R

Race relations, 292
Radio, 1, 195
Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature, 35, 91, 128, 149, 197
Reading ability, importance of teaching discrimination in, 219, 220
individual differences in, 22, 24, 36, 159, 194
material, in current events, 228–229

Reading ability, newspapers, 220, 226
skill in, 9
Readings in Civic Education, Olive Thompson, 148
Realism in education, 13, 142–143, 144–145
Realistic approach to the study of social institutions and problems, 7–8, 144–145
Reality of learning situations in social-studies curriculum, 9, 15
Real-life activities in the schools, 142–143, 240
Real-life experiences, 46, 142–143, 240
Recent Social Trends in the United States, President's Research Committee, 210
Recommendations of the Commission on History (*see* College Entrance Examination Board)
Recreation, 292
Reformation, 107
Relationships, human, 4
among subjects, 8, 11
Renaissance, 107, 111, 283
Reorganizing Secondary Education, Progressive Education Association, Commission on Secondary School Curriculum, 164
Revision of the curriculum, 290, 301, 310, 312
Revolution, American, 69, 74, 221
Riis, Jacob, *The Making of an American*, 210
Rise of American Civilization, The, C. A. Beard, 73
"Rise of Modern Europe, The," series, William L. Langer (Ed.), 91
Rittenhouse, David, 65
Ritter, 234, 246
Rivers of America Series, 71
Robinson, J. H., *The Human Adventure*, 108
The Mind in the Making, 114
Roosevelt, Theodore, H. F. Pringle, 74
Rugg, Harold, O., 262, 263
Rush, Benjamin, 65
Russell, Bertrand, *Education and the Modern World*, 148
Russia, 85, 221, 239
Russia's Iron Age, W. H. Chamberlain, 91, 106

S

Safety, 292
Safety education, 147–148, 152
Safety patrols, 143
Sault Sainte Marie (Soo) Canal, 72
Sawdust Caesar, George Seldes, 106, 128
Schlesinger, A. M., *New Viewpoints in American History*, 71, 73
Political and Social Growth of the American People, 73
Scholastic, 228
School, and the community, cooperation between, 2–3, 143
and democracy, 3, 14–15
enrollment in secondary, 271
function of, in modern society, 2, 14
responsibility of, 2
and society, 1, 14
School curriculum (*see* Curriculum)
Science in General Education, Progressive Education Association, Science Committee, 275, 277, 293
Science and the Modern World, Alfred N. Whitehead, 255
Scope of a unit, 278
"Scope-and-sequence" plan, 295
Scribner's Commentator, 229
Second World War, 84
Sedgwick, W. T., and H. W. Tyler, *A Short History of Science*, 255
Seldes, George, *Sawdust Caesar*, 106, 128
Selected Films for American History and Problems, W. H. Hartley, 149

Selection, of areas of human activity, 301, 303, 304, 307, 311–312
of core problems, 292–293, 311
Self-integrated learning, in social-studies curriculum, 9, 15
Semple, E. C., *Influences of Geographic Environment on the Basis of Ratzel's System of Anthropogeography*, 246
Semple, E. C., and C. F. Jones, *American History and Its Geographic Conditions*, 246
Seven Seals of Science, Joseph Mayer, 254, 255
Sex, 292
Shaw, C. G., *Trends of Civilization and Culture*, 114
Short History of Civilization, A., Lynn Thorndike, 108
Short History of Science, A., W. T. Sedgwick and H. W. Tyler, 255
Silone, Ignazio, *Fontamara*, 131
Simonds, F. H., *Can Europe Keep the Peace?*, 128
Simonds, F. H., and Brooks Emeny, *The Great Powers in World Politics*, 128
Sinclair, Upton, *The Jungle*, 106
Skilling, W. T., *Tours through the World of Science*, 255
Skills, 9, 57, 149, 152
Slow learners, characteristics of, 22, 24
Smith, Adam, 174
Smith, J. R., and Phillips, M. O., *North America*, 245
Smith, Preserved, *A History of Modern Culture*, 255
Snedden, David, *Education for Political Citizenship*, 148
Social causes of pupil difficulties, 35, 37, 42
Social-civic relationships, needs of, 277
Social control, 198, 200
Social-economic goals, 10
Social Education, 90, 149
Social forces, and sociology, 197
Social geography, 235
Social insurance, 177
Social needs, 295
Social planning, 160, 198
Social problems, 277
"Social process," defined, 308
Social sensititivity, of pupils, 19, 39, 157, 197, 277, 293
Social Studies, The, 90, 245
Social studies, aims and objectives, 7–8, 15, 277, 287
classification of content of, 309
in general education, 290
organization of, 272, 287
philosophy of, 308
Social theories, 198–199, 201–202, 212
Social utility, concept of, 176
Society, living in a democratic, 300
reconstruction of, 2
Society for Curriculum Study, 57
Sociology, 138, 150, 192–215, 278, 309
and basic institutions, 198, 212, 213
and biology, 200, 212
and community needs, 197, 201
criticisms of the teaching of, 194–195, 212
and culture, 198, 200–201, 212
definition of, 192, 211
difficulties of evaluation in, 211
discussions in, 204
evaluation of, 210, 211, 213
field trips in, 22, 26, 195, 205, 206, 213
and geography, 200, 212
and government, 198, 200
and history, 193, 202, 213
materials and experiences, 201–203, 210, 212
motivation in, 206, 213
need for a course in, 192, 203, 211
objectives of, 193, 196–197, 201, 211
organization of courses in, 197–201
outcomes of, 194, 201, 206, 213
and pathological aspects of society, 194, 195, 212

Sociology, place and value in secondary education, 193–194, 211
  plans for organization, 203–204
  and present-day problems, 197, 201, 202, 203, 213
  present status of, 194
  and propaganda, 199, 212
  pupil experiential background and, 194, 212
  pupil interests and, 194, 197, 201, 212
  and pupil needs, 197, 212
  and pupil planning, 203–204
  and social forces, 197
  and social theories, 198–199, 201–202, 212
  and statistics, 208–209
  study of, 20, 22
  and teacher planning, 203–204
  teacher preparation for, 194–195, 195–196, 212
  teacher role in, 199, 212
  techniques of evaluation in, 211
  textbooks in, 194, 195, 205, 210
  use of radio in, 195, 212
  use of visual aids in, 195
Sociology and Social Research, 210
Soil conservation, 158
Spirit of the Laws, Montesquieu, 193
Standards, 7, 138, 149, 152
State history, a basis for study of national history, 73
Statesman's Year Book, 128
Statistics and sociology, 208–209
Story of Mankind, The, Hendrik Van Loon, 108
Stream of History, The, Geoffrey Parsons, 108
Student government, 142, 146–147, 151
Study skills, pupil difficulties, 34–35, 42, 293
Supervised study, 46
Survey Graphic, 210, 229
Swain, J. E., *A History of World Civilization*, 108
Systems, educational, city, 270, 281
  state, 270

T

Tandem plan of correlation, 241, 253
Tariff, 219, 222
Taxation, 141
Teacher, of core curriculum, 291–292, 311
  of current events, 230–231
  planning of the curriculum, 274, 287, 301, 311
  planning for individual differences, 21, 22
  planning in problems of democracy, 159, 161, 163, 164, 165–167, 170–171
  planning in sociology, 203–204
  preparation of, 167–168, 169–170, 171, 194–195, 196
  and problems of democracy, 167, 169–170
  and pupil difficulties, 37
  role of, 21, 271, 273, 287
  and sociology, 195–196, 199
Teachers' organizations, 145, 151
Techniques, educational, 24, 39, 42, 270, 272, 276, 280, 287
  in the learning of history, 101
Tests, as aids in consideration of special cases, 76
  aptitude, 76
  essay, 114
  indicative of achievement of objectives, 77
  use for review purposes, 76
  validity of, 77
Tests and Measurements in the Social Sciences, T. L. Kelley and A. C. Krey, 150
Textbooks, in American history, 73–74
  in European history, 90–91
  in international relations, 126–127
  in problems of democracy, 159–160, 171
  in sociology, 194, 195, 205, 210
  study of, 138, 140, 150
  use of, 271, 272, 273, 287, 292
  in world history, 106–107

Thales, 193
Thinking, critical, 157, 162, 169
  reflective, 13, 58, 176, 219
  sociology and, 197
  techniques of, 293
Thompson, Olive, *Readings in Civic Education*, 148
"Threads of development" plan, 48, 58
"Threads of learning" plan, 48, 58
Thorndike, Lynn, *A Short History of Civilization*, 108
Through the Fog of War, Liddell Hart, 91
Time, 126, 228
Tolstoy, L., *Anna Karenina*, 131
Topical plan of organization, 47–48, 58
Tours through the World of Science, W. T. Skilling, 255
Town Laborer, The, J. L. Hammond and Barbara Hammond, 210
Townsendites, 199
Traditional curriculum, 55
Tragedy of Waste, The, Stuart Chase, 106, 180
Trampling Herd, The, P. L. Wellman, 73
Transportation, 57, 160
Travel, 245
Trends of Civilization and Culture, C. G. Shaw, 114
Tulsa, Okla., 281, 299–300, 311
Tyler, Ralph W., 274
Types of curriculum organization, 11–12, 15

U

Underwood tariff, 181
Unemployment, 1, 157, 160, 177
Unit, activity, 55–56
  of adaptation, 52–53
  in American history, 68
  on banking, 48–49
  best type of, 57–58
  center-of-interest, 54–55, 59
  correlated, 53–54, 59, 254–256
Unit, of experience, 56
  fused, 53–54, 59
  in history and current events, 221
  integrated, 53–54, 59
  Morrison, 51–53, 58–59
  scope of, 278
  at various levels, 67
  varying concepts of, 50, 59
  in world history, 109–113
Unitary plan, influence of Gestalt psychology on, 49–50
Unitary plans, 48–60
Unit-assignment plan, individual differences and, 29
United States, 63, 69, 138, 222, 239, 250
United States of America, The, Albert Perry Brigham, 71
United States geography, 235
University of California, 148
University High School, Oakland, Calif., 301
University of Wisconsin High School Plan, 307–308

V

Values of core curriculum, 291
Van Loon, Hendrik, *The Story of Mankind*, 108
Vertical articulation, in social-studies curriculum, 8, 15
Vested interests, 198
Virginia, 74
Virginia plan, 57, 304–305, 311
Visual aids, 187, 189, 195
Vocabulary, changes in, during adolescence, 28
  ethical-social significance of, 141
  functional, 157
  importance of, at various age and ability levels, 66, 141
Vocational education, 6

W

Wagenen, Theodore F. van, *Beacon Lights of Science*, 255

Walker, F. A., *First Lessons in Political Economy*, 174
War, 1, 158, 293
  debts, 219, 226
  individual differences and, 26
Washington, George, Barnard Fay, 74
Weather Bureau, 245
Weekly News Review, The, 228
Wellman, P. I., *The Trampling Herd*, 73
Wells, H. G., 98, 108
Wesley, E. B., "Bibliographies for Teachers of the Social Studies," 148–149, 245
West, Ruth, 149
Whitehead, Alfred N., *Science and the Modern World*, 255
Wilson, Grove, *Great Men of Science*, 255
Wilson, Woodrow, 246
Winnetka plan, individual differences and, 29, 30, 42
Wisconsin plan, individual differences and, 29, 31
Work habits, pupil difficulties in, 34–35, 39, 42, 293
Works Progress Administration, 157
Workshops, Progressive Education Association, 274
World since 1914, *The*, W. C. Langsam, 125, 128
World Almanac, 128, 210
World Court, 219
World geography, 235
World history, 98–115
  aims in, 102–103
  attitudes growing out of a study of, 100
World history, chronological arrangement of units in, 103, 111
  concepts at elementary school level in, 99–100
  concepts emphasized in, 103, 109
  cooperative teaching in, 109
  evaluation in, 114
  gradation in, 109
  importance of, as a school subject, 98
  objectives in, 102–103
  one-year course in, 101
  plans for presentation of, 109
  in secondary school, 101
  supplementary reading in, 106
  textbook and other material in, 108
  time relationships in, 104
  topical arrangement of units in, 111
  two-year course in, 101
  units in, 104, 109–113
  use of geography in, 107
World peace, 219
World Peace Foundation, 125
World War (*see* First World War; Second World War)

Y

Youth Serves the Community, Paul R. Hanna, and others, 143
Youth Tell Their Story, Howard M. Bell, 275

Z

Zachry, Carolyn B., *Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence*, 275

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